

Heap Reference Analysis Using Access Graphs

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Despite significant progress in the theory and practice of program analysis, analyzing properties of heap data has not reached the same level of maturity as the analysis of static and stack data. The spatial and temporal structure of stack and static data is well understood while that of heap data seems arbitrary and is unbounded. We devise bounded representations which summarize properties of the heap data. This summarization is based on the structure of the program which manipulates the heap. The resulting summary representations are certain kinds of graphs called *access graphs*. The boundedness of these representations and the monotonicity of the operations to manipulate them make it possible to compute them through data flow analysis.

An important application which benefits from heap reference analysis is garbage collection, where currently liveness is conservatively approximated by reachability from program variables. As a consequence, current garbage collectors leave a lot of garbage uncollected, a fact which has been confirmed by several empirical studies. We propose the first ever end-to-end static analysis to distinguish live objects from reachable objects. We use this information to make dead objects unreachable by modifying the program. This application is interesting because it requires discovering data flow information representing complex semantics. In particular, we formulate the following new analyses for heap data: liveness, availability, and anticipability and propose solution methods for them. Together, they cover various combinations of directions of analysis (i.e. forward and backward) and confluence of information (i.e. union and intersection). Our analysis can also be used for plugging memory leaks in C/C++ languages.

Categories and Subject Descriptors: D.3.4 [Programming Languages]: Processors—*Memory management (garbage collection); Optimization*; F.3.2 [Logics and Meanings Of Programs]: Semantics of Programming Languages—*Program analysis*

General Terms: Algorithms, Languages, Theory

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Aliasing, Data Flow Analysis, Heap References, Liveness

1. INTRODUCTION

Conceptually, data in a program is allocated in either the static data area, stack, or heap. Despite significant progress in the theory and practice of program analysis, analyzing the properties of heap data has not reached the same level of maturity as the analysis of static and stack data. Section 1.2 investigates possible reasons.

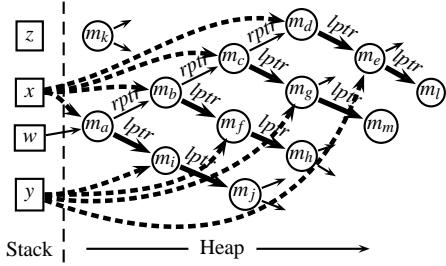
In order to facilitate a systematic analysis, we devise bounded representations which summarize properties of the heap data. This summarization is based on the structure of the program which manipulates the heap. The resulting summary representations are certain kinds of graphs, called access graphs which are obtained through data flow analysis. We believe that our technique of summarization is general enough to be also used in contexts other than heap reference analysis.

1.1 Improving Garbage Collection through Heap Reference Analysis

An important application which benefits from heap reference analysis is garbage collection, where liveness of heap data is conservatively approximated by reachability. This amounts

1. $w = x$ // x points to m_a
2. $while (x.getdata() < max)$
 - {
 - 3. $x = x.rptr$
 - }
4. $y = x.lptr$
5. $z = New\ class_of_z$ // Possible GC Point
6. $y = y.lptr$
7. $z.sum = x.lptr.getdata() + y.getdata()$

(a) A Program Fragment



(b) Superimposition of memory graphs before line 5.
 Dashed arrows capture the effect of different iterations of the *while* loop. All thick arrows (both dashed and solid) are live links.

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y = z = null
1.   w = x
      w = null
2.   while (x.getdata() < max)
      {
        x.lptr = null
3.   x = x.rptr
      }
      x.rptr = x.lptr.rptr = null
      x.lptr.lptr.lptr = null
      x.lptr.lptr.rptr = null
4.   y = x.lptr
      y.rptr = y.lptr.lptr = y.lptr.rptr = null
5.   z = New class_of_z
      z.lptr = z.rptr = null
6.   y = y.lptr
      x.lptr.lptr = y.lptr = y.rptr = null
7.   z.sum = x.lptr.getdata() + y.getdata()
      x = y = z = null

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(c) The modified program. Highlighted statements indicate the *null* assignments inserted in the program using our method. (More details in Section 4)

Fig. 1. A motivating example.

to approximating the future of an execution with its past. Since current garbage collectors cannot distinguish live data from data that is reachable but not live, they leave a lot of garbage uncollected. This has been confirmed by empirical studies [Hirzel et al. 2002; Hirzel et al. 2002; Shaham et al. 2000; 2001; 2002] which show that a large number (24% to 76%) of heap objects which are reachable at a program point are actually not accessed beyond that point. In order to collect such objects, we perform static analyses to make dead objects unreachable by setting appropriate references to *null*. The idea that doing so would facilitate better garbage collection is well known as “Cedar Mesa Folk Wisdom” [Gadbois et al.]. The empirical attempts at achieving this have been [Shaham et al. 2001; 2002].

Garbage collection is an interesting application for us because it requires discovering data flow information representing complex semantics. In particular, we need to discover four properties of heap references: liveness, aliasing, availability, and anticipability. Liveness captures references that may be used beyond the program point under consideration. Only the references that are not live can be considered for *null* assignments. Safety of *null* assignments further requires (a) discovering all possible ways of accessing a given heap memory cell (aliasing), and (b) ensuring that the reference being nullified is accessible (availability and anticipability).

For simplicity of exposition, we present our method using a memory model similar to that of Java. Extensions required for handling C/C++ model of heap usage are easy and are explained in Section 8. We assume that root variable references are on the stack and the actual objects corresponding to the root variables are in the heap. In the rest of the paper we

ignore non-reference variables. We view the heap at a program point as a directed graph called *memory graph*. Root variables form the entry nodes of a memory graph. Other nodes in the graph correspond to objects on the heap and edges correspond to references. The out-edges of entry nodes are labeled by root variable names while out-edges of other nodes are labeled by field names. The edges in the memory graph are called *links*.

EXAMPLE 1.1. Figure 1 shows a program fragment and its memory graphs before line 5. Depending upon the number of times the *while* loop is executed x points to m_a, m_b, m_c etc. Correspondingly, y points to m_i, m_f, m_g etc. The call to *New* on line 5 may require garbage collection. A conventional copying collector will preserve all nodes except m_k . However, only a few of them are used beyond line 5.

The modified program is an evidence of the strength of our approach. It makes the unused nodes unreachable by nullifying relevant links. The modifications in the program are general enough to nullify appropriate links for any number of iterations of the loop. Observe that a *null* assignment has also been inserted within the loop body thereby making some memory unreachable in each iteration of the loop. \square

After such modifications, a garbage collector will collect a lot more garbage. Further, since copying collectors process only live data, garbage collection by such collectors will be faster. Both these facts are corroborated by our empirical measurements (Section 7).

In the context of C/C++, instead of setting the references to *null*, allocated memory will have to be explicitly deallocated after checking that no alias is live.

1.2 Difficulties in Analyzing Heap Data

A program accesses data through expressions which have l-values and hence are called *access expressions*. They can be scalar variables such as x , or may involve an array access such as $a[2 * i]$, or can be a reference expression such as $x.l.r$.

An important question that any program analysis has to answer is: *Can an access expression α_1 at program point p_1 have the same l-value as α_2 at program point p_2 ?* Note that the access expressions or program points could be identical. The precision of the analysis depends on the precision of the answer to the above question.

When the access expressions are simple and correspond to scalar data, answering the above question is often easy because, the mapping of access expressions to l-values remains fixed in a given scope throughout the execution of a program. However in the case of array or reference expressions, the mapping between an access expression and its l-value is likely to change during execution. From now on, we shall limit our attention to reference expressions, since these are the expressions that are primarily used to access the heap. Observe that manipulation of the heap is nothing but changing the mapping between reference expressions and their l-values. For example, in Figure 1, access expression $x.lptr$ refers to m_i when the execution reaches line number 2 and may refer to m_i, m_f, m_g , or m_e at line 4.

This implies that, subject to type compatibility, any access expression can correspond to any heap data, making it difficult to answer the question mentioned above. The problem is compounded because the program may contain loops implying that the same access expression appearing at the same program point may refer to different l-values at different points of time. Besides, the heap data may contain cycles, causing an infinite number of access expressions to refer to the same l-value. All these make analysis of programs involving heaps difficult.

1.3 Contributions of This Paper

The contributions of this paper fall in the following two categories

- Contributions in Data Flow Analysis.* We present a data flow framework in which the data flow values represent abstractions of heap. An interesting aspect of our method is the way we obtain bounded representations of the properties by using the structure of the program which manipulates the heap. As a consequence of this summarization, the values of data flow information constitute a complete lattice with finite height. Further, we have carefully identified a set of monotonic operations to manipulate this data flow information. Hence, the standard results of data flow analysis can be extended to heap reference analysis. Due to the generality of this approach, it can be applied to other analyses as well.
- Contributions in Heap Data Analysis.* We propose the first ever end-to-end solution (in the intraprocedural context) for statically discovering heap references which can be made *null* to improve garbage collection. The only approach which comes close to our approach is the *heap safety automaton* based approach [Shaham et al. 2003]. However, our approach is superior to their approach in terms of completeness, effectiveness, and efficiency (details in Section 9.2).

The concept which unifies the contributions is the summarization of heap properties which uses the fact that *the heap manipulations consist of repeating patterns which bear a close resemblance to the program structure*. Our approach to summarization is more natural and more precise than other approaches because it does not depend on an a-priori bound [Jones and Muchnick 1979; 1982; Larus and Hilfinger 1988; Chase et al. 1990].

1.4 Organization of the paper

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 defines the concept of explicit liveness of heap objects and formulates a data flow analysis by using access graphs as data flow values. Section 3 defines other properties required for ensuring safety of *null* assignment insertion. Section 4 explains how *null* assignments are inserted. Section 5 discusses convergence and complexity issues. Section 6 shows the soundness of our approach. Section 7 presents empirical results. Section 8 extends the approach to C++. Section 9 reviews related work while Section 10 concludes the paper.

2. EXPLICIT LIVENESS ANALYSIS OF HEAP REFERENCES

Our method discovers live links at each program point, i.e., links which may be used in the program beyond the point under consideration. Links which are not live can be set to *null*. This section describes the liveness analysis. In particular, we define liveness of heap references, devise a bounded representation called an *access graph* for liveness, and then propose a data flow analysis for discovering liveness. Other analyses required for safety of *null* insertion are described in Section 3.

Our method is flow sensitive but context insensitive. This means that we compute point-specific information in each procedure by taking into account the flow of control at the intraprocedural level and by approximating the interprocedural information such that it is not context-specific but is safe in all calling contexts. For the purpose of analysis, arrays are handled by approximating any occurrence of an array element by the entire array. The current version models exception handling by explicating possible control flows. However, programs containing threads are not covered.

2.1 Access Paths

In order to discover liveness and other properties of heap, we need a way of naming links in the memory graph. We do this using access paths.

An *access path* is a root variable name followed by a sequence of zero or more field names and is denoted by $\rho_x \equiv x \rightarrow f_1 \rightarrow f_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow f_k$. Since an access path represents a path in a memory graph, it can be used for naming links and nodes. An access path consisting of just a root variable name is called a *simple* access path; it represents a path consisting of a single link corresponding to the root variable. \mathcal{E} denotes an empty access path.

The last field name in an access path ρ is called its *frontier* and is denoted by $Frontier(\rho)$. The frontier of a simple access path is the root variable name. The access path corresponding to the longest sequence of names in ρ excluding its frontier is called its *base* and is denoted by $Base(\rho)$. Base of a simple access path is the empty access path \mathcal{E} . The object reached by traversing an access path ρ is called the *target* of the access path and is denoted by $Target(\rho)$. When we use an access path ρ to refer to a link in a memory graph, it denotes the last link in ρ , i.e. the link corresponding to $Frontier(\rho)$.

EXAMPLE 2.1. As explained earlier, Figure 1(b) is the superimposition of memory graphs that can result before line 5 for different executions of the program. For the access path $\rho_x \equiv x \rightarrow lptr \rightarrow lptr$, depending on whether the *while* loop is executed 0, 1, 2, or 3 times, $Target(\rho_x)$ denotes nodes m_j , m_h , m_m , or m_l . $Frontier(\rho_x)$ denotes one of the links $m_i \rightarrow m_j$, $m_f \rightarrow m_h$, $m_g \rightarrow m_m$ or $m_e \rightarrow m_l$. $Base(\rho_x)$ represents the following paths in the heap memory: $x \rightarrow m_a \rightarrow m_i$, $x \rightarrow m_b \rightarrow m_f$, $x \rightarrow m_c \rightarrow m_g$ or $x \rightarrow m_d \rightarrow m_e$. \square

In the rest of the paper, α denotes an access expression, ρ denotes an access path and σ denotes a (possibly empty) sequence of field names separated by \rightarrow . Let the access expression α_x be $x.f_1.f_2 \dots f_n$. Then, the corresponding access path ρ_x is $x \rightarrow f_1 \rightarrow f_2 \dots f_n$. When the root variable name is not required, we drop the subscripts from α_x and ρ_x .

2.2 Program Flow Graph

Since the current version of our method involves context insensitive analysis, each procedure is analyzed separately and only once. Thus there is no need of maintaining a call graph and we use the term program and procedure interchangeably.

To simplify the description of analysis we make the following assumptions:

- The program flow graph has a unique *Entry* and a unique *Exit* node. We assume that there is a distinguished *main* procedure.
- Each statement forms a basic block.
- The conditions that alter flow of control are made up only of simple variables. If not, the offending reference expression is assigned to a fresh simple variable before the condition and is replaced by the fresh variable in the condition.

With these simplification, each statement falls in one of the following categories:

- Function Calls*. These are statements $x = f(\alpha_y, \alpha_z, \dots)$ where the functions involve access expressions in arguments. The type of x does not matter.
- Assignment Statements*. These are assignments to references and are denoted by $\alpha_x = \alpha_y$. Only these statements can modify the structure of the heap.

- Use Statements.* These statements use heap references to access heap data but do not modify heap references. For the purpose of analysis, these statements are abstracted as lists of expressions $\alpha_y.d$ where α_y is an access expression and d is a non-reference.
- Return Statement* of the type $return \alpha_x$ involving reference variable x .
- Other Statements.* These statements include all statements which do not refer to the heap. We ignore these statements since they do not influence heap reference analysis.

When we talk about the execution path, we shall refer to the execution of the program derived by retaining all function calls, assignments and use statements and ignoring the condition checks in the path.

For simplicity of exposition, we present the analyses assuming that there are no cycles in the heap. This assumption does not limit the theory in any way because our analyses inherently compute conservative information in the presence of cycles without requiring any special treatment.

2.3 Liveness of Access Paths

A link l is *live* at a program point p if it is used in some control flow path starting from p . Note that l may be used in two different ways. It may be dereferenced to access an object or tested for comparison. An erroneous nullification of l would affect the two uses in different ways: Dereferencing l would result in an exception being raised whereas testing l for comparison may alter the result of condition and thereby the execution path.

Figure 1(b) shows links that are live before line 5 by thick arrows. For a link l to be live, there must be at least one access path from some root variable to l such that every link in this path is live. This is the path that is actually traversed while using l .

Since our technique involves nullification of access paths, we need to extend the notion of liveness from links to access paths. An access path is defined to be *live* at p if the link corresponding to its frontier is live along some path starting at p . Safety of *null* assignments requires that the access paths which are live are excluded from nullification.

We initially limit ourselves to a subset of live access paths, whose liveness can be determined without taking into account the aliases created before p . These access paths are live solely because of the execution of the program beyond p . We call access paths which are live in this sense as *explicitly live* access paths. An interesting property of explicitly live access paths is that they form the minimal set covering every live link.

EXAMPLE 2.2. If the body of the *while* loop in Figure 1(a) is not executed even once, $Target(y) = m_i$ at line 5 and the link $m_i \rightarrow m_j$ is live at line 5 because it is used in line 6. The access paths y and $y \rightarrow lptr$ are explicitly live because their liveness at 5 can be determined solely from the statements from 5 onwards. In contrast, the access path $w \rightarrow lptr \rightarrow lptr$ is live without being explicitly live. It becomes live because of the alias between y and $w \rightarrow lptr$ and this alias was created before 5. Also note that if an access path is explicitly live, so are all its prefixes. \square

EXAMPLE 2.3. We illustrate the issues in determining explicit liveness of access paths by considering the assignment $x.r.n = y.n.n$.

- Killed Access Paths.* Since the assignment modifies $Frontier(x \rightarrow r \rightarrow n)$, any access path which is live after the assignment and has $x \rightarrow r \rightarrow n$ as prefix will cease to be live before the assignment. Access paths that are live after the assignment and not killed by it are live before the assignment also.

- Directly Generated Access Paths.* All prefixes of $x \rightarrow r$ and $y \rightarrow n$ are explicitly live before the assignment due to the local effect of the assignment.
- Transferred Access Paths.* If $x \rightarrow r \rightarrow n \rightarrow \sigma$ is live after the assignment, then $y \rightarrow n \rightarrow n \rightarrow \sigma$ will be live before the assignment. For example, if $x \rightarrow r \rightarrow n \rightarrow n$ is live after the assignment, then $y \rightarrow n \rightarrow n \rightarrow n$ will be live before the assignment. The sequence of field names σ is viewed as being *transferred* from $x \rightarrow r \rightarrow n$ to $y \rightarrow n \rightarrow n$. \square

We now define liveness by generalizing the above observations. We use the notation $p_x \rightarrow *$ to enumerate all access paths which have p_x as a prefix. The summary liveness information for a set S of reference variables is defined as follows:

$$\text{Summary}(S) = \bigcup_{x \in S} \{x \rightarrow *\}$$

Further, the set of all global variables is denoted by *Globals* and the set of formal parameters of the function being analyzed is denoted by *Params*.

Definition 2.1. Explicit Liveness. The set of explicitly live access paths at a program point p , denoted by Liveness_p , is defined as follows.

$$\text{Liveness}_p = \bigcup_{\psi \in \text{Paths}(p)} (\text{PathLiveness}_p^\psi)$$

where, $\psi \in \text{Paths}(p)$ is a control flow path p to *Exit* and $\text{PathLiveness}_p^\psi$ denotes the liveness at p along ψ and is defined as follows. If p is not program exit then let the statement which follows it be denoted by s and the program point immediately following s be denoted by p' . Then,

$$\text{PathLiveness}_p^\psi = \begin{cases} \emptyset & p \text{ is } \text{Exit of } \text{main} \\ \text{Summary}(\text{Globals}) & p \text{ is } \text{Exit of some procedure} \\ \text{StatementLiveness}_s(\text{PathLiveness}_{p'}^\psi) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where the flow function for s is defined as follows:

$$\text{StatementLiveness}_s(X) = (X - \text{LKills}_s) \cup \text{LDirect}_s \cup \text{LTransfer}_s(X)$$

LKills_s denotes the sets of access paths which cease to be live before statement s , LDirect_s denotes the set of access paths which become live due to local effect of s and $\text{LTransfer}_s(X)$ denotes the the set of access paths which become live before s due to transfer of liveness from live access paths after s . They are defined in Figure 2. \square

Observe that the definitions of LKills_s , LDirect_s , and $\text{LTransfer}_s(X)$ ensure that the Liveness_p is prefix-closed.

EXAMPLE 2.4. In Figure 1, it cannot be statically determined which link is represented by access expression $x.lptr$ at line 4. Depending upon the number of iterations of the *while* loop, it may be any of the links represented by thick arrows. Thus at line 1, we have to assume that all access paths $\{x \rightarrow lptr \rightarrow lptr, x \rightarrow rptr \rightarrow lptr \rightarrow lptr, x \rightarrow rptr \rightarrow rptr \rightarrow lptr \rightarrow lptr, \dots\}$ are explicitly live. \square

In general, an infinite number of access paths with unbounded lengths may be live before a loop. Clearly, performing data flow analysis for access paths requires a suitable finite representation. Section 2.4 defines access graphs for the purpose.

Statement s	$LKill_s$	$LDirect_s$	$LTransfer_s(X)$
$\alpha_x = \alpha_y$	$\{\rho_x \rightarrow *\}$	$Prefixes(Base(\rho_x)) \cup Prefixes(Base(\rho_y))$	$\{\rho_y \rightarrow \sigma \mid \rho_x \rightarrow \sigma \in X\}$
$\alpha_x = f(\alpha_y)$	$\{\rho_x \rightarrow *\}$	$Prefixes(Base(\rho_x)) \cup Summary(\{\rho_y\} \cup Globals)$	\emptyset
$\alpha_x = new$	$\{\rho_x \rightarrow *\}$	$Prefixes(Base(\rho_x))$	\emptyset
$\alpha_x = null$	$\{\rho_x \rightarrow *\}$	$Prefixes(Base(\rho_x))$	\emptyset
$use \alpha_y.d$	\emptyset	$Prefixes(\rho_y)$	\emptyset
$return \alpha_y$	\emptyset	$Summary(\{\rho_y\})$	\emptyset
other	\emptyset	\emptyset	\emptyset

Fig. 2. Defining Flow Functions for Liveness. *Globals* denotes the set of global references and *Params* denotes the set of formal parameters. For simplicity, we have shown a single access expression on the RHS.

2.4 Representing Sets of Access Paths by Access Graphs

In the presence of loops, the set of access paths may be infinite and the lengths of access paths may be unbounded. If the algorithm for analysis tries to compute sets of access paths explicitly, termination cannot be guaranteed. We solve this problem by representing a set of access paths by a graph of bounded size.

2.4.1 Defining Access Graphs. An *access graph*, denoted by G_v , is a directed graph $\langle n_0, N, E \rangle$ representing a set of access paths starting from a root variable v .¹ N is the set of nodes, $n_0 \in N_F$ is the entry node with no in-edges and E is the set of edges. Every path in the graph represents an access path. The *empty graph* \mathcal{E}_G has no nodes or edges and does not accept any access path.

The entry node of an access graph is labeled with the name of the root variable while the non-entry nodes are labeled with a unique label created as follows: If a field name f is referenced in basic block b , we create an access graph node with a label $\langle f, b, i \rangle$ where i is the instance number used for distinguishing multiple occurrences of the field name f in block b . Note that this implies that the nodes with the same label are treated as identical. Often, i is 0 and in such a case we denote the label $\langle f, b, 0 \rangle$ by f_b for brevity. Access paths $\rho_x \rightarrow *$ are represented by including a summary node denoted n_* with a self loop over it. It is distinct from all other nodes but matches the field name of any other node.

A node in the access graph represents one or more links in the memory graph. Additionally, during analysis, it represents a state of access graph construction (explained in Section 2.4.2). An edge $f_n \rightarrow g_m$ in an access graph at program point p indicates that a link corresponding to field f dereferenced in block n may be used to dereference a link corresponding to field g in block m on some path starting at p . This has been used in Section 5.2 to argue that the size of access graphs in practical programs is small.

Pictorially, the entry node of an access graph is indicated by an incoming double arrow.

2.4.2 Summarization. Recall that a link is live at a program point p if it is used along some control flow path from p to *Exit*. Since different access paths may be live along different control flow paths and there may be infinitely many control flow paths in the case

¹Where the root variable name is not required, we drop the subscript v from G_v .

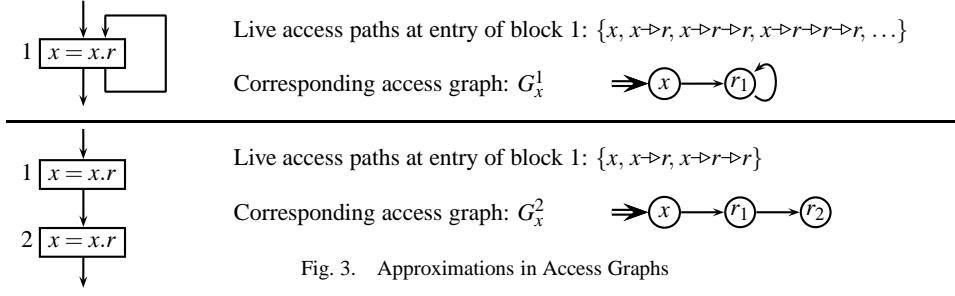


Fig. 3. Approximations in Access Graphs

of a loop following p , there may be infinitely many access paths which are live at p . Hence, the lengths of access paths will be unbounded. In such a case summarization is required.

Summarization is achieved by merging appropriate nodes in access graphs, retaining all in and out edges of merged nodes. We explain merging with the help of Figure 3:

- Node n_1 in access graph G_x^1 indicates references of n at *different execution instances of the same* program point. Every time this program point is visited during analysis, the same state is reached in that the pattern of references after n_1 is repeated. Thus all occurrences of n_1 are merged into a single state. This creates a cycle which captures the repeating pattern of references.
- In G_x^2 , nodes n_1 and n_2 indicate referencing n at *different* program points. Since the references made after these program points may be different, n_1 and n_2 are not merged.

Summarization captures the pattern of heap traversal in the most straightforward way. Traversing a path in the heap requires the presence of reference assignments $\alpha_x = \alpha_y$ such that p_x is a proper prefix of p_y . Assignments in Figure 3 are examples of such assignments. The structure of the flow of control between such assignments in a program determines the pattern of heap traversal. Summarization captures this pattern without the need of control flow analysis and the resulting structure is reflected in the access graphs as can be seen in Figure 3. More examples of the resemblance of program structure and access graph structure can be seen in the access graphs in Figure 6.

2.4.3 Operations on Access Graphs. Section 2.3 defined liveness by applying certain operations on access paths. In this subsection we define the corresponding operations on access graphs. Unless specified otherwise, the binary operations are applied only to access graphs having same root variable. The auxiliary operations and associated notations are:

- $\text{Root}(\rho)$ denotes the root variable of access path ρ , while $\text{Root}(G)$ denotes the root variable of access graph G .
- $\text{Field}(n)$ for a node n denotes the field name component of the label of n .
- $G(\rho)$ constructs access graphs corresponding to ρ . It uses the current basic block number and the field names to create appropriate labels for nodes. The instance number depends on the number of occurrences of a field name in the block. $G(\rho \rightarrow *)$ creates an access graph with root variable x and the summary node n_* with an edge from x to n_* and a self loop over n_* .
- $\text{lastNode}(G)$ returns the last node of a *linear graph* G constructed from a given ρ .
- $\text{CleanUp}(G)$ deletes the nodes which are not reachable from the entry node.

Program	Access Graphs			Remainder Graphs
1 $x = x.l$	$g_1 \Rightarrow x$	$g_2 \Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_2$	$g_3 \Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_1$	$rg_1 \Rightarrow r_2$
2 $y = x.r.d$	$g_4 \Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_1 \rightarrow r_2$	$g_5 \Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_1 \rightarrow r_2$	$g_6 \Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_1 \rightarrow r_2$	$rg_2 \Rightarrow l_1 \rightarrow r_2$
Union	Path Removal	Factorisation	Extension	
$g_3 \uplus g_4 = g_4$	$g_6 \ominus x \rightarrow l = g_2$	$g_2 / (g_1, \{x\}) = \{rg_1\}$	$(g_3, \{l_1\}) \# \{rg_1\} = g_4$	
$g_2 \uplus g_4 = g_5$	$g_5 \ominus x = \mathcal{E}_G$	$g_5 / (g_1, \{x\}) = \{rg_1, rg_2\}$	$(g_3, \{x, l_1\}) \# \{rg_1, rg_2\} = g_6$	
$g_5 \uplus g_4 = g_5$	$g_4 \ominus x \rightarrow r = g_4$	$g_5 / (g_2, \{r_2\}) = \{\mathcal{E}_{RG}\}$	$(g_2, \{r_2\}) \# \{\mathcal{E}_{RG}\} = g_2$	
$g_5 \uplus g_6 = g_6$	$g_4 \ominus x \rightarrow l = g_1$	$g_4 / (g_2, \{r_2\}) = \emptyset$	$(g_2, \{r_2\}) \# \emptyset = \mathcal{E}_G$	

Fig. 4. Examples of operations on access graphs.

— $CN(G, G', S)$ computes the set of nodes of G which correspond to the nodes of G' specified in the set S . To compute $CN(G, G', S)$, we define $ACN(G, G')$, the set of pairs of *all corresponding nodes*. Let $G \equiv \langle n_0, N, E \rangle$ and $G' \equiv \langle n'_0, N', E' \rangle$. A node n in G corresponds to a node n' in G' if there exists an access path p which is represented by a path from n_0 to n in G and a path from n'_0 to n' in G' .

Formally, $ACN(G, G')$ is the least solution of the following equation:

$$ACN(G, G') = \begin{cases} \emptyset & Root(G) \neq Root(G') \\ \{ \langle n_0, n'_0 \rangle \} \cup \{ \langle n_j, n'_j \rangle \mid Field(n_j) = Field(n'_j), \\ & n_i \rightarrow n_j \in E, n'_i \rightarrow n'_j \in E', \\ & \langle n_i, n'_i \rangle \in ACN(G, G') \} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$CN(G, G', S) = \{n \mid \langle n, n' \rangle \in ACN(G, G'), n' \in S\}$$

Note that $Field(n_j) = Field(n'_j)$ would hold even when n_j or n'_j is the summary node n_* .

Let $G \equiv \langle n_0, N, E \rangle$ and $G' \equiv \langle n'_0, N', E' \rangle$ be access graphs (having the same entry node). G and G' are equal if $N = N'$ and $E = E'$.

The main operations of interest are defined below and are illustrated in Figure 4.

- (1) *Union* (\uplus). $G \uplus G'$ combines access graphs G and G' such that any access path contained in G or G' is contained in the resulting graph.

$$G \uplus G' = \langle n_0, N \cup N', E \cup E' \rangle$$

The operation $N \cup N'$ treats the nodes with the same label as identical. Because of associativity, \uplus can be generalized to arbitrary number of arguments in an obvious manner.

- (2) *Path Removal* (\ominus). The operation $G \ominus p$ removes those access paths in G which have p as a prefix.

$$G \ominus p = \begin{cases} G & p = \mathcal{E} \text{ or } Root(p) \neq Root(G) \\ \mathcal{E}_G & p \text{ is a simple access path} \\ CleanUp(\langle n_0, N, E - E_{del} \rangle) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} E_{del} = & \{n_i \rightarrow n_j \mid n_i \rightarrow n_j \in E, n_i \in CN(G, G^B, \{\text{lastNode}(G^B)\}), \\ & \text{Field}(n_j) = \text{Frontier}(\rho), G^B = G(\text{Base}(\rho)), \\ & \text{UniqueAccessPath?}(G, n_i)\} \end{aligned}$$

$\text{UniqueAccessPath?}(G, n)$ returns true if in G , all paths from the entry node to node n represent the same access path. Note that path removal is conservative in that some paths having ρ as prefix may not be removed. Since an access graph edge may be contained in more than one access paths, we have to ensure that access paths which do not have ρ as prefix are not erroneously deleted.

(3) *Factorization* (/). Recall that the *Transfer* term in Definition 2.1 requires extracting suffixes of access paths and attaching them to some other access paths. The corresponding operations on access graphs are performed using factorization and extension. Given a node $m \in (N - \{n_0\})$ of an access graph G , the *Remainder Graph* of G at m is the subgraph of G rooted at m and is denoted by $RG(G, m)$. If m does not have any outgoing edges, then the result is the empty remainder graph \mathcal{E}_{RG} . Let M be a subset of the nodes of G' and M' be the set of corresponding nodes in G . Then, $G/(G', M)$ computes the set of remainder graphs of the successors of nodes in M' .

$$G/(G', M) = \{RG(G, n_j) \mid n_i \rightarrow n_j \in E, n_i \in CN(G, G', M)\} \quad (1)$$

A remainder graph is similar to an access graph except that (a) its entry node does not correspond to a root variable but to a field name and (b) the entry node can have incoming edges.

(4) *Extension*. Extending an empty access graph \mathcal{E}_G results in the empty access graph \mathcal{E}_G . For non-empty graphs, this operation is defined as follows.

(a) *Extension with a remainder graph* (·). Let M be a subset of the nodes of G and $R \equiv \langle n', N^R, E^R \rangle$ be a remainder graph. Then, $(G, M) \cdot R$ appends the suffixes in R to the access paths ending on nodes in M .

$$\begin{aligned} (G, M) \cdot \mathcal{E}_{RG} &= G \\ (G, M) \cdot R &= \langle n_0, N \cup N^R, E \cup E^R \cup \{n_i \rightarrow n' \mid n_i \in M\} \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

(b) *Extension with a set of remainder graphs* (#). Let S be a set of remainder graphs. Then, $G \# S$ extends access graph G with every remainder graph in S .

$$\begin{aligned} (G, M) \# \emptyset &= \mathcal{E}_G \\ (G, M) \# S &= \biguplus_{R \in S} (G, M) \cdot R \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

2.4.4 Safety of Access Graph Operations. Since access graphs are not exact representations of sets of access paths, the safety of approximations needs to be defined explicitly. The constraints defined in Figure 5 capture safety in the context of liveness in the following sense: Every access path which can possibly be live should be retained by each operation. Since the complement of liveness is used for nullification, this ensures that no live access path is considered for nullification. These properties have been proved [Iyer 2005] using the PVS theorem prover².

²Available from <http://pvs.csl.sri.com>.

Operation	Access Graphs	Access Paths
Union	$G_3 = G_1 \uplus G_2$	$P(G_3, M_3) \supseteq P(G_1, M_1) \cup P(G_2, M_2)$
Path Removal	$G_2 = G_1 \ominus \rho$	$P(G_2, M_2) \supseteq P(G_1, M_1) - \{\rho \rightarrow \sigma \mid \rho \rightarrow \sigma \in P(G_1, M_1)\}$
Factorization	$S = G_1 / (G_2, M)$	$P(S, M_s) = \{\sigma \mid \rho' \rightarrow \sigma \in P(G_1, M_1), \rho' \in P(G_2, M)\}$
Extension	$G_2 = (G_1, M) \# S$	$P(G_2, M_2) \supseteq P(G_1, M_1) \cup \{\rho \rightarrow \sigma \mid \rho \in P(G_1, M), \sigma \in P(S, M_s)\}$

Fig. 5. Safety of Access Graph Operations. $P(G, M)$ is the set of paths in graph G terminating on nodes in M . For graph G_i , M_i is the set of all nodes in G_i . S is the set of remainder graphs and $P(S, M_s)$ is the set of all paths in all remainder graphs in S .

2.5 Data Flow Analysis for Discovering Explicit Liveness

For a given root variable v , $\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{In}_v(i)$ and $\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{Out}_v(i)$ denote the access graphs representing explicitly live access paths at the entry and exit of basic block i . We use \mathcal{E}_G as the initial value for $\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{In}_v(i)/\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{Out}_v(i)$.

$$\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{In}_v(i) = (\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{Out}_v(i) \ominus \text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{KillPath}_v(i)) \uplus \text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{Gen}_v(i) \quad (4)$$

$$\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{Out}_v(i) = \begin{cases} G(v \rightarrow *) & i = \text{Exit}, v \in \text{Globals} \\ \mathcal{E}_G & i = \text{Exit}, v \notin \text{Globals} \\ \biguplus_{s \in \text{succ}(i)} \text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{In}_v(s) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where

$$\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{Gen}_v(i) = \text{LDirect}_v(i) \uplus \text{LTransfer}_v(i)$$

We define $\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{KillPath}_v(i)$, $\text{LDirect}_v(i)$, and $\text{LTransfer}_v(i)$ depending upon the statement.

- (1) *Assignment statement* $\alpha_x = \alpha_y$. Apart from defining the desired terms for x and y , we also need to define them for any other variable z . In the following equations, G_x and G_y denote $G(\rho_x)$ and $G(\rho_y)$ respectively, whereas M_x and M_y denote $\text{lastNode}(G(\rho_x))$ and $\text{lastNode}(G(\rho_y))$ respectively.

$$\text{LDirect}_x(i) = G(\text{Base}(\rho_x))$$

$$\text{LDirect}_y(i) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{E}_G & \alpha_y \text{ is New ... or null} \\ G(\text{Base}(\rho_y)) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{LDirect}_z(i) = \mathcal{E}_G, \text{ for any variable } z \text{ other than } x \text{ and } y$$

$$\text{LTransfer}_y(i) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{E}_G & \alpha_y \text{ is New or null} \\ (G_y, M_y) \# & \text{otherwise} \\ (\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{Out}_x(i) / (G_x, M_x)) & \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{LTransfer}_z(i) = \mathcal{E}_G, \text{ for any variable } z \text{ other than } y$$

$$\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{KillPath}_x(i) = \rho_x$$

$$\text{E}\mathbb{L}\text{KillPath}_z(i) = \mathcal{E}, \text{ for any variable } z \text{ other than } x$$

As stated earlier, the path removal operation deletes an edge only if it is contained in a unique path. Thus fewer paths may be killed than desired. This is a safe approximation. Another approximation which is also safe is that only the paths rooted at x are

i	$\text{ELOut}(i)$	$\text{ELIn}(i)$
7		$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_7 \Rightarrow y \Rightarrow z$
6	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_7 \Rightarrow y \Rightarrow z$	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_7 \Rightarrow y \rightarrow l_6 \Rightarrow z$
5	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_7 \Rightarrow y \rightarrow l_6 \Rightarrow z$	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_7 \Rightarrow y \rightarrow l_6$
4	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_7 \Rightarrow y \rightarrow l_6$	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_7$ $\Rightarrow x \rightarrow l_4 \rightarrow l_6$
3	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_7$ $\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_4 \rightarrow l_6$	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_7$ $\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_4 \rightarrow l_6$
2	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_7$ $\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_4 \rightarrow l_6$	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_7$ $\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_4 \rightarrow l_6$
1	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_7$ $\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_4 \rightarrow l_6$	$\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_7$ $\Rightarrow x \rightarrow r_3 \rightarrow l_4 \rightarrow l_6$

Fig. 6. Explicit liveness for the program in Figure 1 under the assumption that all variables are local variables.

killed. Since assignment to α_x changes the link represented by $\text{Frontier}(\rho_x)$, for precision, any path which is guaranteed to contain the link represented by $\text{Frontier}(\rho_x)$ should also be killed. Such paths can be discovered through must-alias analysis which we do not perform.

(2) *Function call $\alpha_x = f(\alpha_y)$.* We conservatively assume that a function call may make any access path rooted at y or any global reference variable live. Thus this version of our analysis is context insensitive.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{LDirect}_x(i) &= G(\text{Base}(\rho_x)) \\
 \text{LDirect}_y(i) &= G(\rho_y \rightarrow *) \\
 \text{LDirect}_z(i) &= \begin{cases} G(z \rightarrow *) & \text{if } z \text{ is a global variable} \\ \mathcal{E}_G & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
 \text{LTransfer}_z(i) &= \mathcal{E}_G, \text{ for all variables } z \\
 \text{ELKillPath}_x(i) &= \rho_x \\
 \text{ELKillPath}_z(i) &= \mathcal{E}, \text{ for any variable } z \text{ other than } x
 \end{aligned}$$

(3) *Return Statement $\text{return } \alpha_x$.*

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{LDirect}_x(i) &= G(\rho_x \rightarrow *) \\
 \text{LDirect}_z(i) &= \begin{cases} G(z \rightarrow *) & \text{if } z \text{ is a global variable} \\ \mathcal{E}_G & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
 \text{LTransfer}_z(i) &= \mathcal{E}_G, \text{ for any variable } z \\
 \text{ELKillPath}_z(i) &= \mathcal{E}, \text{ for any variable } z
 \end{aligned}$$

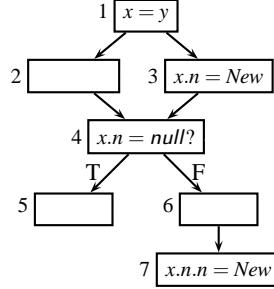


Fig. 7. Explicit liveness information is not sufficient for nullification.

(4) Use Statements

$$\begin{aligned}
 L\text{Direct}_x(i) &= \biguplus G(p_x) \text{ for every } \alpha_x.d \text{ used in } i \\
 L\text{Direct}_z(i) &= \mathcal{E}_G \text{ for any variable } z \text{ other than } x \text{ and } y \\
 L\text{Transfer}_z(i) &= \mathcal{E}_G, \text{ for every variable } z \\
 L\text{KillPath}_z(i) &= \mathcal{E}, \text{ for every variable } z
 \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 2.5. Figure 6 lists explicit liveness information at different points of the program in Figure 1 under the assumption that all variables are local variables. \square

Observe that computing liveness using equations (4) and (5) results in an MFP (Maximum Fixed Point) solution of data flow analysis whereas definition (2.1) specifies an MoP (Meet over Paths) solution of data flow analysis. Since the flow functions are non-distributive (see appendix A), the two solutions may be different.

3. OTHER ANALYSES FOR INSERTING NULL ASSIGNMENTS

Explicit liveness alone is not enough to decide whether an assignment $\alpha_x = \text{null}$ can be safely inserted at p . We have to additionally ensure that:

- $\text{Frontier}(\rho_x)$ is not live through an alias created before the program point p . The extensions required to find all live access paths, including those created due to aliases, is discussed in section 3.1.
- Dereferencing links during the execution of the inserted statement $\alpha_x = \text{null}$ does not cause an exception. This is done through *availability* and *anticipability* analysis and is described in section 3.2.

Both these requirements are illustrated through the example shown below:

EXAMPLE 3.1. In Figure 7, access path $y \rightarrow n$ is not explicitly live in block 6. However, $\text{Frontier}(y \rightarrow n)$ and $\text{Frontier}(x \rightarrow n)$ represent the same link due to the assignment $x = y$. Thus $y \rightarrow n$ is implicitly live and setting it to null in block 6 will raise an exception in block 7. Also, $x \rightarrow n \rightarrow n$ is not live in block 2. However, it cannot be set to null since the object pointed to by $x \rightarrow n$ does not exist in memory when the execution reaches block 2. Therefore, insertion of $x.n.n = \text{null}$ in block 2 will raise an exception at run-time. \square

3.1 Computing Live Access Paths

Recall that an access path is live if it is either explicitly live or shares its *Frontier* with some explicitly live path. The property of sharing is captured by *aliasing*. Two access paths ρ_x and ρ_y are *aliased* at a program point p if $\text{Target}(\rho_x)$ is same as $\text{Target}(\rho_y)$ at p during some execution of the program. They are *link-aliased* if their frontiers represent the same link; they are *node-aliased* if they are aliased but their frontiers do not represent the same link. Link-aliases can be derived from node-aliases (or other link-aliases) by adding the same field names to aliased access paths.

Alias information is *flow-sensitive* if the aliases at a program point depend on the statements along control flow paths reaching the point. Otherwise it is flow insensitive. Among flow sensitive aliases, two access paths are *must-aliased* at p if they are aliased along every control flow path reaching p ; they are *may-aliased* if they are aliased along some control flow path reaching p . As an example, in Figure 1, $x \Rightarrow lptr$ and y are must-node-aliases, $x \Rightarrow lptr \Rightarrow lptr$ and $y \Rightarrow lptr$ are must-link-aliases, and w and x are node-aliases at line 5.

We compute flow sensitive may-aliases (without kills) using the algorithm described by Hind et al. [1999] and use pairs of access graphs for compact representation of aliases. Liveness is computed through a backward propagation much in the same manner as explicit liveness except that it is ensured that the live paths at each program point is closed under may-aliasing. This requires the following two changes in the earlier scheme.

- (1) *Inclusion of Intermediate Nodes in Access Graphs.* Unlike explicit liveness, live access paths may not be prefix closed. This is because the frontier of a live access path ρ_x may be accessed using some other access path and not through the links which constitute ρ_x . Hence prefixes of ρ_x may not be live. In an access graph representing liveness, all paths may not represent live links. We therefore modify the access graph so that such paths are not described by the access graph. In order to make this distinction, we divide the nodes in an access graphs in two categories: *final* and *intermediate*. The only access paths described by the access graph are those which end at final nodes.³ This change affects the access graph operations in the following manner:
 - The equality of graphs now must consider equality of the sets of intermediate nodes and the sets of final nodes separately.
 - Graph constructor $G(\rho_x)$ marks all nodes in the resulting graph as final implying that all non-empty prefixes of ρ_x are contained in the graph. We define a new constructor $GOnly(\rho_x)$ which marks only the last node as final and all other nodes as intermediate implying that only ρ_x is contained in the graph.
 - Whenever multiple nodes with identical labels are combined, if any instance of the node is final then the resulting node is treated as final. This influences union (\sqcup) and extension (#).
 - The set M used in defining factorization and extension (equations 1, 2, 3) and the safety properties of access graph operations (Figure 5) contain final nodes only.
 - Extension $G \cdot RG$ marks all nodes in G as intermediate. If G and RG have a common node then the status of the node is governed by its status in RG .
 - The $\text{CleanUp}(G)$ operation is modified to delete those intermediate nodes which do not have a path leading to a final node.

³These two categories are completely orthogonal to the labeling criterion of the nodes.

i	$\text{AIn}(i)$	$\text{AOut}(i)$
1	\emptyset	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle$
2	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle$	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle$
3	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle$	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle$
4	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle$	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow l_4 \rangle$
5	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow l_4 \rangle$	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow l_4 \rangle$
6	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow l_4 \rangle$	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow l_4 \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y \rightarrow l_6 \rangle$
7	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow l_4 \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y \rightarrow l_6 \rangle$	$\langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft w \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow r_3 \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft x \rightarrow l_4 \rangle, \langle \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y, \Rightarrow \circlearrowleft y \rightarrow l_6 \rangle$

Fig. 8. Alias pairs for the running example from Figure (1).

(2) *Link Alias Closure.* To discover all link aliases of a live access we compute link alias closure as defined below. Given an alias set AS , the set of link aliases of an access path $\rho_x \Rightarrow f$ is the least solution of:

$$\text{LnA}(\rho_x \Rightarrow f, AS) = \{\rho_y \Rightarrow f \mid \langle \rho_x, \rho_y \rangle \in AS \text{ or } \langle \rho_x, \rho_y \rangle \in \text{LnA}(\rho_x, AS)\}$$

Given an alias pair $\langle g_x, g_y \rangle$ link aliases of G_x rooted at y are included in the access graph G_y as follows:

$$\text{LnG}(G_y, G_x, \langle g_x, g_y \rangle) = G_y \uplus (g_y, m_y) \# ((G_x / (g_x, m_x)) - \mathbf{\Sigma}_{RG}) \quad (7)$$

where m_y and m_x are the singleton sets containing the final nodes of g_y and g_x respectively. $\mathbf{\Sigma}_{RG}$ has to be removed from set of remainder graphs because we want to transfer non-empty links only. Complete liveness is computed as the least solution of the following equations

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{LIn}_v(i) &= \text{T}\mathbb{LIn}_v(i) \biguplus_{\langle g_v, g_u \rangle \in \text{AIn}(i)} \text{LnG}(\mathbb{LIn}_v(i), \mathbb{LIn}_u(i), \langle g_v, g_u \rangle) \\ \mathbb{LOut}_v(i) &= \begin{cases} G(v \Rightarrow *) & i = \text{Exit}, v \in \text{Globals} \\ \mathbf{\Sigma}_G \uplus \text{LnG}(\mathbb{LOut}_v(i), \mathbb{LOut}_u(i), \langle g_v, g_u \rangle) & i = \text{Exit}, v \notin \text{Globals}, \\ & \langle g_v, g_u \rangle \in \text{AOut}(i) \\ \biguplus_{s \in \text{succ}(i)} \mathbb{LIn}_v(s) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

where $\text{T}\mathbb{LIn}_v(i)$ is same as $\text{E}\mathbb{LIn}_v(i)$ except that $\text{E}\mathbb{LOut}_v(i)$ is replaced by $\mathbb{LOut}_v(i)$ in the main equation (equation 4) and in the computation of *Transfer* (equation 6).

EXAMPLE 3.2. Figure 7 shows the may-alias information for our running example from Figure 1. Observe that the access graphs used for storing alias information have

i	$\mathbb{L}\text{Out}(i)$	$\mathbb{L}\text{In}(i)$
7		
6		
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		

Fig. 9. Liveness access graphs including implicit liveness information for the program in Figure 1. Gray nodes are nodes included by link-alias computation. Intermediate nodes are shown with dotted lines.

only the last node as final and all other nodes as intermediate. Figure 9 shows the liveness access graphs augmented with implicit liveness. \square

Observe that in the presence of cyclic data structures, we will get alias pairs of the form $\langle \rho, \rho \rightarrow \sigma \rangle$. If a link in the cycle is live then the link alias closure will ensure that all possible links are marked live by creating cycles in the access graphs. This may cause approximation but would be safe.

3.2 Availability and Anticipability of Access Paths

Example 3.1 shows that safety of inserting an assignment $\alpha_x = \text{null}$ at a program point p requires that whenever control reaches p , every prefix of $\text{Base}(p_x)$ has a non-*null* l-value. Such an access path is said to be *accessible* at p . Our use of accessibility ensures the preservation of semantics in the following sense: Consider an execution path which does not have a dereferencing exception in the unoptimized program. Then the proposed opti-

Statement s	$AvKill_s$	$AvDirect_s$	$AvTransfer_s(X)$
$\alpha_x = \alpha_y$	$\{\rho_z \rightarrow * \mid \rho_z \in \text{LnA}(\rho_x, \text{Aln}(s))\}$	$\text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\rho_x)) \cup \text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\rho_y))$	$\{\rho_x \rightarrow \sigma \mid \rho_y \rightarrow \sigma \in X\}$
$\alpha_x = f(\alpha_y)$	$\{\rho_z \rightarrow * \mid \rho_z \in \text{LnA}(\rho_x, \text{Aln}(s))\}$	$\text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\rho_x))$	\emptyset
$\alpha_x = \text{new}$	$\{\rho_z \rightarrow * \mid \rho_z \in \text{LnA}(\rho_x, \text{Aln}(s))\}$	$\text{Prefixes}(\rho_x)$	\emptyset
$\alpha_x = \text{null}$	$\{\rho_z \rightarrow * \mid \rho_z \in \text{LnA}(\rho_x, \text{Aln}(s))\}$	$\text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\rho_x))$	\emptyset
$\text{use } \alpha_y.d$	\emptyset	$\text{Prefixes}(\rho_y)$	\emptyset
$\text{return } \alpha_y$	\emptyset	$\text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\rho_y))$	\emptyset
other	\emptyset	\emptyset	\emptyset

Fig. 10. Flow functions for availability. $\text{Aln}(s)$ denotes the set of may-aliases at the entry of s .

mization will also not have any dereferencing exception in the same execution path.

3.2.1 *Defining Availability and Anticipability.* We define an access path ρ_x to be accessible at p if all of its prefixes are *available* or *anticipable* at p :

- An access path ρ_x is *available* at a program point p , if along every path reaching p , there exists a program point p' such that $\text{Frontier}(\rho_x)$ is either dereferenced or assigned a non-*null* l-value at p' and is not made *null* between p' to p .
- An access path ρ_x is *anticipable* at a program point p , if along every path starting from p , $\text{Frontier}(\rho_x)$ is dereferenced before being assigned.

Since both these properties are *all paths* properties, all may-link aliases of the left hand side of an assignment need to be killed. Conversely, these properties can be made more precise by including must-aliases in the set of anticipable or available paths.

Recall that comparisons in conditionals consists of simple variables only. The use of these variables does not involve any dereferencing. Hence a comparison $x == y$ does not contribute to accessibility of x or y .

Definition 3.1. Availability. The set of paths which are available at a program point p , denoted by $Avail_p$, is defined as follows.

$$Avail_p = \bigcap_{\psi \in \text{Paths}(p)} (PathAvail_p^\psi)$$

where, $\psi \in \text{Paths}(p)$ is a control flow path *Entry* to p and $PathAvail_p^\psi$ denotes the availability at p along ψ and is defined as follows. If p is not *Entry* of the procedure being analyzed, then let the statement which precedes it be denoted by s and the program point immediately preceding s be denoted by p' . Then,

$$PathAvail_p^\psi = \begin{cases} \emptyset & p \text{ is } \text{Entry} \\ \text{StatementAvail}_s(PathAvail_{p'}^\psi) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where the flow function for s is defined as follows:

$$\text{StatementAvail}_s(X) = (X - AvKill_s) \cup AvDirect_s \cup AvTransfer_s(X)$$

$AvKill_s$ denotes the sets of access paths which cease to be available after statement s , $AvDirect_s$ denotes the set of access paths which become available due to local effect of

Statement s	$AnKill_s$	$AnDirect_s$	$AnTransfer_s(X)$
$\alpha_x = \alpha_y$	$\{p_z \rightarrow * \mid p_z \in \text{LnA}(\alpha_x, \text{AOut}(s))\}$	$\text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\alpha_x)) \cup \text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\alpha_y))$	$\{p_y \rightarrow \sigma \mid p_x \rightarrow \sigma \in X\}$
$\alpha_x = f(\alpha_y)$	$\{p_z \rightarrow * \mid p_z \in \text{LnA}(\alpha_x, \text{AOut}(s))\}$	$\text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\alpha_x)) \cup \text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\alpha_y))$	\emptyset
$\alpha_x = \text{new}$	$\{p_z \rightarrow * \mid p_z \in \text{LnA}(\alpha_x, \text{AOut}(s))\}$	$\text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\alpha_x))$	\emptyset
$\alpha_x = \text{null}$	$\{p_z \rightarrow * \mid p_z \in \text{LnA}(\alpha_x, \text{AOut}(s))\}$	$\text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\alpha_x))$	\emptyset
$\text{use } \alpha_y.d$	\emptyset	$\text{Prefixes}(\alpha_y)$	\emptyset
$\text{return } \alpha_y$	\emptyset	$\text{Prefixes}(\text{Base}(\alpha_y))$	\emptyset
other	\emptyset	\emptyset	\emptyset

Fig. 11. Flow functions for anticipability. $\text{AOut}(s)$ denotes the set of may-aliases at the exit of s .

s and $AnTransfer_s(X)$ denotes the the set of access paths which become available after s due to transfer. They are defined in Figure 10. \square

In a similar manner, we define anticipability of access paths.

Definition 3.2. Anticipability. The set of paths which are anticipable at a program point p , denoted by Ant_p is defined as follows.

$$Ant_p = \bigcap_{\psi \in \text{Paths}(p)} (PathAnt_p^\psi)$$

where, $\psi \in \text{Paths}(p)$ is a control flow path p to $Exit$ and $PathAvail_p^\psi$ denotes the anticipability at p along ψ and is defined as follows. If p is $Exit$ then let the statement which follows it be denoted by s and the program point immediately following s be denoted by p' . Then,

$$PathAnt_p^\psi = \begin{cases} \emptyset & p \text{ is } Exit \\ StatementAnt_s(PathAnt_{p'}^\psi) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where the flow function for s is defined as follows:

$$StatementAnt_s(X) = (X - AnKill_s) \cup AnDirect_s \cup AnTransfer_s(X)$$

$AnKill_s$ denotes the sets of access paths which cease to be anticipable before statement s , $AnDirect_s$ denotes the set of access paths which become anticipable due to local effect of s and $AnTransfer_s(X)$ denotes the the set of access paths which become anticipable before s due to transfer. They are defined in Figure 11. \square

Observe that both $Avail_p$ and Ant_p are prefix-closed.

3.2.2 Data Flow Analyses for Availability and Anticipability. Availability and Anticipability are *all (control-flow) paths* properties in that the desired property must hold along every path reaching/leaving the program point under consideration. Thus these analyses identify access paths which are common to all control flow paths *including acyclic control flow paths*. Since acyclic control flow paths can generate only acyclic⁴ and hence finite

⁴In the presence of cycles in heap, considering only acyclic access paths results in an approximation which is safe for availability and anticipability.

i	$\text{AvIn}(i)$	$\text{AvOut}(i)$	$\text{AnIn}(i)$	$\text{AnOut}(i)$
1	\emptyset	\emptyset	$\{x\}$	$\{x\}$
2	\emptyset	$\{x\}$	$\{x\}$	$\{x\}$
3	$\{x\}$	\emptyset	$\{x, x \rightarrow r\}$	$\{x\}$
4	$\{x\}$	$\{x\}$	$\{x, x \rightarrow l, x \rightarrow l \rightarrow l\}$	$\{x, x \rightarrow l, y, y \rightarrow l\}$
5	$\{x\}$	$\{x, z\}$	$\{x, x \rightarrow l, y, y \rightarrow l\}$	$\{x, x \rightarrow l, y, y \rightarrow l, z\}$
6	$\{x, z\}$	$\{x, z\}$	$\{x, x \rightarrow l, y, y \rightarrow l, z\}$	$\{x, x \rightarrow l, y, z\}$
7	$\{x, z\}$	$\{x, x \rightarrow l, y, z\}$	$\{x, x \rightarrow l, y, z\}$	\emptyset

Fig. 12. Availability and anticipability for the program in Figure 1.

access paths, anticipability and availability analyses deal with a finite number of access paths and summarization is not required.

Thus there is no need to use access graphs for availability and anticipability analyses. The data flow analysis can be performed using a set of access paths because the access paths are bounded and the sets would be finite. Moreover, since the access paths resulting from anticipability and availability are prefix-closed, they can be represented efficiently.

The data flow equations are same as the definitions of these analyses except that definitions are path-based (i.e. they define MoP solution) while the data flow equations are edge-based (i.e. they define MFP solution) as is customary in data flow analysis. In other words, the data flow information is merged at the intermediate points and availability and anticipability information is derived from the corresponding information at the preceding and following program point respectively. As observed in appendix A, the flow functions in availability and anticipability analyses are non-distributive hence MoP and MFP solutions may be different.

For brevity, we omit the data flow equations. We use the universal set of access paths as the initial value for all blocks other than *Entry* for availability analysis and *Exit* for anticipability analysis.

EXAMPLE 3.3. Figure 12 gives the availability and anticipability information for program in Figure 1. $\text{AvIn}(i)$ and $\text{AvOut}(i)$ denote the set of available access paths before and after the statement i , while $\text{AnIn}(i)$ and $\text{AnOut}(i)$ denote the set of anticipable access paths before and after the statement i . \square

4. NULL ASSIGNMENT INSERTION

We now explain how the analyses described in preceding sections can be used to insert appropriate *null* assignments to nullify dead links. The inserted assignments should be safe and profitable as defined below.

Definition 4.1. Safety. It is safe to insert an assignment $\alpha = \text{null}$ at a program point p if and only if p is not live at p and $\text{Base}(p)$ can be dereferenced without raising an exception.

An access path ρ is *nullable* at a program point p if and only if it is safe to insert assignment $\alpha = \text{null}$ at p .

Definition 4.2. Profitability. It is profitable to insert an assignment $\alpha = \text{null}$ at a program point p if and only if no proper prefix of ρ is nullable at p and the link corresponding to $\text{Frontier}(\rho)$ is not made *null* before execution reaches p .

Note that profitability definition is strict in that every control flow path may nullify a particular link only once. Redundant *null* assignments on any path are prohibited. Since control flow paths have common segments, a *null* assignment may be partially redundant in the sense that it may be redundant along one path but not along some other path. Such *null* assignments will be deemed unprofitable by Definition 4.2. Our algorithm may not be able to avoid all redundant assignments.

EXAMPLE 4.1. We illustrate some situations of safety and profitability for the program in Figure 1.

- Access path $x \rightarrow lptr \rightarrow lptr$ is not nullable at the entry of 6. This is because $x \rightarrow lptr \rightarrow lptr$ is implicitly live, due to the use of $y \rightarrow lptr$ in 6. Hence it is not safe to insert $x.lptr.lptr = null$ at the entry of 6.
- Access path $x \rightarrow rptr$ is nullable at the entry of 4, and continues to be so on the path from the entry of 4 to the entry of 7. The assignment $x.rptr = null$ is profitable only at the entry of 4. \square

Section 4.1 describes the criteria for deciding whether a given path ρ should be considered for a *null* assignment at a program point p . Section 4.2 describes how we create the set of candidate access paths. Let $Live(p)$, $Available(p)$, and $Anticipable(p)$ denote set of live paths, set of available paths and set of anticipable paths respectively at program point p .⁵ They refer to $\mathbb{LIn}(i)$, $\mathbb{AvIn}(i)$, and $\mathbb{AnIn}(i)$ respectively when p is \mathbb{In}_i . When p is \mathbb{Out}_i , they refer to $\mathbb{LOut}(i)$, $\mathbb{AvOut}(i)$, and $\mathbb{AnOut}(i)$ respectively.

4.1 Computing Safety and Profitability

To find out if ρ can be nullified at p , we compute two predicates: *Nullable* and *Nullify*. $Nullable(\rho, p)$ captures the safety property—it is true if insertion of assignment $\alpha = null$ at program point p is safe.

$$Nullable(\rho, p) = \rho \notin Live(p) \wedge \text{Base}(\rho) \in Available(p) \cup Anticipable(p) \quad (8)$$

$Nullify(\rho, p)$ captures the profitability property—it is true if insertion of assignment $\alpha = null$ at program point p is profitable. To compute *Nullify*, we note that it is most profitable to set a link to *null* at the earliest point where it ceases to be live. Therefore, the *Nullify* predicate at a point has to take into account the possibility of *null* assignment insertion at previous point(s). For a statement i in the program, let \mathbb{In}_i and \mathbb{Out}_i denote the program points immediately before and after i . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} Nullify(\rho, \mathbb{Out}_i) &= Nullable(\rho, \mathbb{Out}_i) \wedge \left(\bigwedge_{\rho' \in ProperPrefix(\rho)} \rho' \notin Live(\mathbb{Out}_i) \right) \\ &\quad \wedge (\neg Nullable(\rho, \mathbb{In}_i) \vee \neg Transp(\rho, i)) \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

$$\begin{aligned} Nullify(\rho, \mathbb{In}_i) &= Nullable(\rho, \mathbb{In}_i) \wedge \left(\bigwedge_{\rho' \in ProperPrefix(\rho)} \rho' \notin Live(\mathbb{In}_i) \right) \\ &\quad \wedge \rho \neq \mathbb{lhs}(i) \wedge (\neg \bigwedge_{j \in pred(i)} Nullable(\rho, \mathbb{Out}_j)) \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

⁵Because availability and anticipability properties are prefix closed, $\text{Base}(\rho) \in Available(p) \cup Anticipable(p)$ guarantees that all proper prefixes of ρ are either available or anticipable.

where, $Transp(\rho, i)$ denotes that ρ is transparent with respect to statement i , i.e. no prefix of ρ is may-link-aliased to the access path corresponding to the lhs of statement i at ln_i . $Lhs(i)$ denotes the access path corresponding to the lhs access expression of assignment in statement i . $pred(i)$ is the set of predecessors of statement i in the program. $ProperPrefix(\rho)$ is the set of all proper prefixes of ρ .

We insert assignment $\alpha = null$ at program point p if $Nullify(\rho, p)$ is true.

4.2 Computing Candidate Access Paths for *null* Insertion

The method described above only checks whether a given access path ρ can be nullified at a given program point p . We can generate the *candidate* set of access paths for *null* insertion at p as follows: For any candidate access path ρ , $Base(\rho)$ must either be available or anticipable at p . Additionally, all simple access paths are also candidates for *null* insertions. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} Candidates(p) = & \{ \rho \rightarrow f \mid \rho \in Available(p) \cup Anticipable(p), f \in OutField(\rho) \} \\ & \cup \{ \rho \mid \rho \text{ is a simple access path} \} \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

Where $OutField(\rho)$ is the set of fields which can be used to extend access path ρ at p . It can be obtained easily from the type information of the object $Target(\rho)$ at p .

Note that all the information required for equations (8), (9), (10), and (11) is obtained from the result of data flow analyses described in preceding sections. Type information of objects required by equation (11) can be obtained from the front end of compiler. $Transp$ uses may alias information as computed in terms of pairs of access graph.

EXAMPLE 4.2. Figure 13 lists a trace of the null insertion algorithm for the program in Figure 1. \square

4.3 Reducing Redundant *null* Insertions

Consider a program with an assignment statement $i : \alpha_x = \alpha_y$. Assume a situation where, for some non-empty suffix σ , both $Nullify(\rho_y \rightarrow \sigma, ln_i)$ and $Nullify(\rho_x \rightarrow \sigma, Out_i)$ are true. In that case, we will be inserting $\alpha_y \cdot \sigma = null$ at ln_i and $\alpha_x \cdot \sigma = null$ at Out_i . Clearly, the latter *null* assignment is redundant in this case and can be avoided by checking if $\rho_y \rightarrow \sigma$ is nullable at ln_i .

If must-alias analysis is performed then redundant assignments can be reduced further. Since must-link-alias relation is symmetric, reflexive, and transitive and hence an equivalence relation, the set of candidate paths at a program point can be divided into equivalence classes based on must-link-alias relation. Redundant *null* assignments can be reduced by nullifying at most one access path in any equivalence class.

5. CONVERGENCE OF HEAP REFERENCE ANALYSIS

The *null* assignment insertion algorithm makes a single traversal over the control flow graph. We show the termination of liveness analysis using the properties of access graph operations. Termination of availability and anticipability can be shown by similar arguments over finite sets of bounded access paths. Termination of alias analysis follows from Hind et al. [1999].

5.1 Monotonicity

For a program there are a finite number of basic blocks, a finite number of fields for any root variable, and a finite number of field names in any access expression. Hence the

p, i	$Candidates(p)$	$lhs(i)$	$\neg Transp(p, i)$	$Nullable(p, p)$	$Nullify(p, p)$
In,1	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r\}$	w	$\{w\}$	$\{w, y, z\}$	$\{y, z\}$
Out,1	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r\}$			$\{w, y, z\}$	$\{w\}$
In,2	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r\}$	-	\emptyset	$\{w, y, z\}$	\emptyset
Out,2	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r\}$			$\{w, y, z\}$	\emptyset
In,3	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow r \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r \Rightarrow r\}$	x	$\{x, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r\}$	$\{w, y, z, x \Rightarrow l\}$	$\{x \Rightarrow l\}$
Out,3	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r\}$			$\{w, y, z\}$	\emptyset
In,4	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	y	$\{y, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	$\{w, y, z, x \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	$\{x \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$
Out,4	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$			$\{w, z, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	$\{y \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$
In,5	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	z	$\{z\}$	$\{w, z, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	\emptyset
Out,5	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, z \Rightarrow l, z \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$			$\{w, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow r, z \Rightarrow l, z \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	$\{z \Rightarrow l, z \Rightarrow r\}$
In,6	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, z \Rightarrow l, z \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	y	$\{y, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r\}$	$\{w, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow r, z \Rightarrow l, z \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	\emptyset
Out,6	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, z \Rightarrow l, z \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$			$\{w, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, z \Rightarrow l, z \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	$\{y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l\}$
In,7	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, z \Rightarrow l, z \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	-	\emptyset	$\{w, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, z \Rightarrow l, z \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	\emptyset
Out,7	$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, z \Rightarrow l, z \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$			$\{w, x, y, z, x \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow r, y \Rightarrow l, y \Rightarrow r, z \Rightarrow l, z \Rightarrow r, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow l, x \Rightarrow l \Rightarrow r\}$	$\{x, y, z\}$

Fig. 13. Null insertion for the program in Figure 1.

Operation	Monotonicity
Union	$G_1 \sqsubseteq_G G'_1 \wedge G_2 \sqsubseteq_G G'_2 \Rightarrow G_1 \uplus G_2 \sqsubseteq_G G'_1 \uplus G'_2$
Path Removal	$G_1 \sqsubseteq_G G_2 \Rightarrow G_1 \ominus p \sqsubseteq_G G_2 \ominus p$
Factorization	$G_1 \sqsubseteq_G G_2 \Rightarrow G_1 / (G, M) \sqsubseteq_{RS} G_2 / (G, M)$
Extension	$RS_1 \sqsubseteq_{RS} RS_2 \wedge G_1 \sqsubseteq_G G_2 \wedge M_1 \sqsubseteq M_2 \Rightarrow (G_1, M_1) \# RS_1 \sqsubseteq_G (G_2, M_2) \# RS_2$
Link-Alias Closure	$G_1 \sqsubseteq_G G'_1 \wedge G_2 \sqsubseteq_G G'_2 \Rightarrow \text{LnG}(G_1, G_2, \langle g_x, g_y \rangle) \sqsubseteq_S \text{LnG}(G'_1, G'_2, \langle g_x, g_y \rangle)$

Fig. 14. Monotonicity of Access Graph Operations

number of access graphs for a program is finite. Further, the number of nodes and hence the size of each access graph, is bounded by the number of labels which can be created for a program.

Access graphs for a variable x form a complete lattice with a partial order \sqsubseteq_G induced by \uplus . Note that \uplus is commutative, idempotent, and associative. Let $G = \langle x, N_F, N_I, E \rangle$ and $G' = \langle x, N'_F, N'_I, E' \rangle$ where subscripts F and I distinguish between the final and intermediate nodes. The partial order \sqsubseteq_G is defined as

$$G \sqsubseteq_G G' \Leftrightarrow (N'_F \subseteq N_F) \wedge (N'_I \subseteq (N_F \cup N_I)) \wedge (E' \subseteq E)$$

Clearly, $G \sqsubseteq_G G'$ implies that G contains all access paths of G' . We extend \sqsubseteq_G to a set of access graphs as follows:

$$S_1 \sqsubseteq_S S_2 \Leftrightarrow \forall G_2 \in S_2, \exists G_1 \in S_1 \text{ s.t. } G_1 \sqsubseteq_G G_2$$

It is easy to verify that \sqsubseteq_G is reflexive, transitive, and antisymmetric. For a given variable x , the access graph \mathcal{E}_G forms the \top element of the lattice while the \perp element is a greatest lower bound of all access graphs.

The partial order over access graphs and their sets can be carried over unaltered to remainder graphs (\sqsubseteq_{RG}) and their sets (\sqsubseteq_{RS}), with the added condition that \mathcal{E}_{RG} is incomparable to any other non empty remainder graph.

Access graph operations are monotonic as described in Figure 14. Path removal is monotonic in the first argument but not in the second argument. Similarly factorization is monotonic in the first argument but not in the second and the third argument. However, we show that in each context where they are used, the resulting functions are monotonic:

- (1) Path removal is used only for an assignment $\alpha_x = \alpha_y$. It is used in liveness analysis and its second argument is p_x which is constant for any assignment statement $\alpha_x = \alpha_y$. Thus the resulting flow functions are monotonic.
- (2) Factorization is used in the following situations:
 - (a) *Link-alias closure of access graphs.* From equation (7) it is clear LnG is monotonic in the first argument (because it is used in \uplus) and the second argument (because it is supplied as the first argument of factorization). The third and the fourth arguments of LnG are linear access graphs containing a single path and hence are incomparable with any other linear access graph. Thus link-alias computation is monotonic in all its arguments.
 - (b) *Liveness analysis.* Factorization is used for the flow function corresponding to an assignment $\alpha_x = \alpha_y$ and its second argument is $G(p_x)$ while its third argu-

ment is $\text{lastNode}(G(\rho_x))$ both of which are constant for any assignment statement $\alpha_x = \alpha_y$. Thus, the resulting flow functions are monotonic.

Thus we conclude that all flow functions are monotonic. Since lattices are finite, termination of heap reference analysis follows.

Appendix A discusses the distributivity of flow functions.

5.2 Complexity

This section discusses the issues which influence the complexity and efficiency of performing heap reference analysis. Empirical measurements which corroborate the observations made in this section are presented in Section 7.

The data flow frameworks defined in this paper are not *separable* [Khedker 2002] because the data flow information of a variable depends on the data flow information of other variables. Thus the number of iterations over control flow graph is not bounded by the depth of the graph [Aho et al. 1986; Hecht 1977; Khedker 2002] but would also depend on the number of root variables which depend on each other.

Although we consider each statement to be a basic block, our control flow graphs retain only statements involving references. A further reduction in the size of control flow graphs follows from the fact that successive use statements need not be kept separate and can be grouped together into a block which ends on a reference assignment.

The amount of work done in each iteration is not fixed but depends on the size of access graphs. Of all operations performed in an iteration, only $\text{CFN}(G, G')$ is costly. Conversion to deterministic access graphs is also a costly operations but is performed for a single pass during *null* assignment insertion. In practice, the access graphs are quite small because of the following reason: Recall that edges in access graphs capture dependence of a reference made at one program point on some other reference made at another point (Section 2.4.1). In real programs, traversals involving long dependences are performed using iterative constructs in the program. In such situations, the length of the chain of dependences is limited by the process of summarization because summarization treats nodes with the same label as being identical. Thus, in real programs chains of such dependences, and hence the access graphs, are quite small in size. This is corroborated by Figure 16 which provides the empirical data for the access graphs in our examples. The average number of nodes in these access graphs is less than 7 while the average number of edges is less than 12. These numbers are still smaller in the interprocedural analysis. Hence the complexities of access graph operations is not a matter of concern.

6. SAFETY OF *NULL* ASSIGNMENT INSERTION

We have to prove that the *null* assignments inserted by our algorithm (Section 4) in a program are safe in that they do not alter the result of executing the program. We do this by showing that (a) an inserted statement itself does not raise a dereferencing exception, and (b) an inserted statement does not affect any other statement, both original and inserted.

We use the subscripts b and a for a program point p to denote “before” and “after” in an execution order. Further, the corresponding program points in the original and modified program are distinguished by the superscript o and m . The correspondence is defined as follows: If p^m is immediately before or after an inserted assignment $\alpha = \text{null}$, p^o is the point where the decision to insert the *null* assignment is taken. For any other p^m , there is an obvious p^o .

We first assert the soundness of availability, anticipability and alias analyses without proving them.

LEMMA 6.1. (Soundness of Availability Analysis). *Let AV_{p_a} be the set of access paths available at program point p_a . Let $\rho \in AV_{p_a}$. Then along every path reaching p_a , there exists a program point p_b , such that the link represented by $Frontier(\rho)$ is either dereferenced or assigned a non-null l-value at p_b and is not made null between p_b and p_a .*

LEMMA 6.2. (Soundness of Anticipability Analysis). *Let AN_p be the set of access paths anticipable at program point p . Let $\rho \in AN_p$. Then along every path starting from p , the link represented by $Frontier(\rho)$ is dereferenced before being assigned.*

For semantically valid input programs (i.e. programs which do not generate dereferencing exceptions), Lemma 6.1 and Lemma 6.2 guarantee that if ρ is available or anticipable at p , $Target(\rho)$ can be dereferenced at p .

LEMMA 6.3. (Soundness of Alias Analysis). *Let $Frontier(\rho_x)$ represents the same link as $Frontier(\rho_y)$ at a program point p during some execution of the program. Then link-alias computation of ρ_x at p would discover ρ_y to be link-aliased to ρ_x .*

For the main claim, we relate the access paths at p_a to the access paths at p_b by incorporating the effect of intervening statements only, regardless of the statements executed before p_b . In some execution of a program, let ρ be the access path of interest at p_a and the sequence of statements between p_b and p_a be s .⁶ Then $T(s, \rho)$ represents the access path at p_b which, if non- \mathcal{E} , can be used to access the link represented by $Frontier(\rho)$. $T(s, \rho)$ captures the transitive effect of backward transfers of ρ through s . T is defined as follows:

$$T(s, \rho) = \begin{cases} \rho & s \text{ is a use statement} \\ \rho & s \text{ is } \alpha_x = \dots \text{ and } \rho_x \text{ is not a prefix of } \rho \\ \mathcal{E} & s \text{ is } \alpha_x = \text{New} \text{ and } \rho = \rho_x \rightarrow \sigma \\ \mathcal{E} & s \text{ is } \alpha_x = \text{null} \text{ and } \rho = \rho_x \rightarrow \sigma \\ \rho_y \rightarrow \sigma & s \text{ is } \alpha_x = \alpha_y \text{ and } \rho = \rho_x \rightarrow \sigma \\ \rho & s \text{ is the function call } \alpha_x = f(\alpha_y) \text{ and} \\ & Root(\rho) \text{ is a global variable} \\ \rho_y \rightarrow \sigma & s \text{ is the function call } \alpha_x = f(\alpha_y), \rho = z \rightarrow \sigma \text{ and} \\ & z \text{ is the formal parameter of } f \\ \rho & s \text{ is the return statement } return(\alpha_z) \text{ and} \\ & Root(\rho) \text{ is a global variable} \\ \rho_z \rightarrow \sigma & s \text{ is the return statement } return(\alpha_z), \rho = \rho_x \rightarrow \sigma \text{ and} \\ & \text{the corresponding call is } \alpha_x = f(\alpha_y) \\ T(s_1, T(s_2, \rho)) & s \text{ is a sequence } s_1; s_2 \end{cases}$$

LEMMA 6.4. (Liveness Propagation). *Let ρ^a be in some explicit liveness graph at p_a . Let the sequence of statements between p_b to p_a be s . Then, if $T(s, \rho^a) = \rho^b$ and ρ^b is not \mathcal{E} , then ρ^b is in some explicit liveness graph at p_b .*

PROOF. The proof is by structural induction on s . Since ρ^b is non- \mathcal{E} , the base cases are:

- (1) s is a use statement. In this case $\rho^b = \rho^a$.

⁶When s is a function call $\alpha_x = f(\alpha_y)$, p_a is the entry point of f and p_b is the program point just before the statement s in the caller's body. Analogous remark holds for the return statement.

- (2) s is an assignment $\alpha_x = \dots$ such that ρ_x is not a prefix of ρ^a . Here also $\rho^b = \rho^a$.
- (3) s is an assignment $\alpha_x = \alpha_y$ such that $\rho^a = \rho_x \rightarrowtail \sigma$. In this case $\rho^b = \rho_y \rightarrowtail \sigma$.
- (4) s is the function call $\alpha_x = f(\alpha_y)$. The only interesting case is when $\rho^a = z \rightarrowtail \sigma$, where z is the formal parameter of f . In this case, $\rho^b = \rho_y \rightarrowtail \sigma$.
- (5) s is the return statement $return(\alpha_z)$. The only interesting case is when $\rho^a = \rho_x \rightarrowtail \sigma$, and the corresponding call is $\alpha_x = f(\alpha_y)$. In this case, $\rho^b = \rho_z \rightarrowtail \sigma$.

For (1) and (2), since ρ^a is not in ELKillPath , ρ^b is in some explicit liveness graph at p_b . For (3), from Equation (6), ρ^b is in some explicit liveness graph at p_b . For (4) and (5), the result follows from the fact that $\text{Summary}(\rho_y)$ and $\text{Summary}(\rho_z)$ are in the explicit liveness graph of the program points before the call and return statements respectively.

For the inductive step, assume that the lemma holds for s_1 and s_2 . From the definition of T , there exists a non- \mathcal{E} ρ^i at the intermediate point p_i between s_1 and s_2 , such that $\rho^i = T(s_2, \rho^a)$ and $\rho^b = T(s_1, \rho^i)$. Since ρ^a is in some explicit liveness graph at p_a , by the induction hypothesis, ρ^i must be in some explicit liveness graph at p_i . Further, by the induction hypothesis, ρ^b must be in some explicit liveness graph at p_b . \square

LEMMA 6.5. *Every access path which is in some liveness graph at p_b^m is also in some liveness graph at p_b^o .*

PROOF. If an extra explicitly live access path is introduced in the modified program, it could be only because of an inserted assignment $\alpha = \text{null}$ at some p_a^m . The only access paths which this statement can add to an explicit liveness graph are the paths corresponding to the proper prefixes of α . However, the algorithm selects α for nullification only if the access paths corresponding to all its proper prefixes are in some explicit liveness graph. Therefore every access path which is in some explicit liveness graph at p_a^m is also in some explicit liveness graph at p_a^o . The same relation would hold at p_b^m and p_b^o .

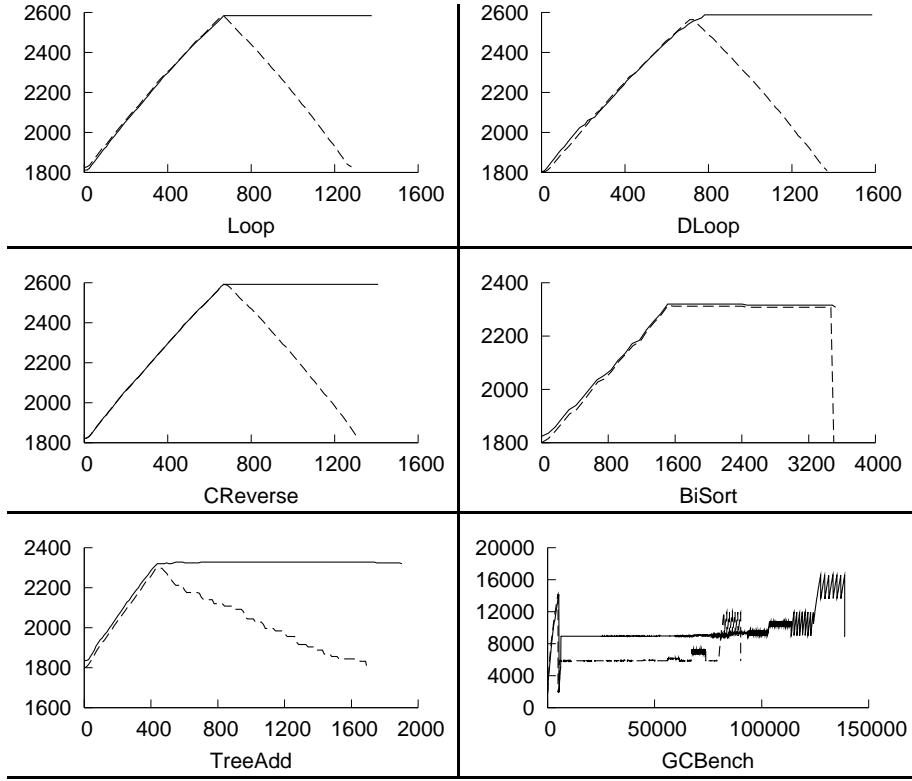
If an extra live access path is introduced in the modified program, it could be only because of an inserted assignment $\alpha = \text{null}$ at some p_a^m . The only access paths which this statement can add to an liveness graphs are $\text{LnA}(\rho', AS^m)$, where ρ' is a proper prefix of ρ and AS^m represents the alias set at p_a^m . However, the algorithm selects α for nullification at p_a^m only if the access paths corresponding to all its proper prefixes are in some liveness graph at p_a^o . As liveness graphs are closed under link aliasing, this implies that the liveness graph at p_a^o includes paths $\text{LnA}(\rho', AS^o)$, where AS^o represents the alias set at p_a^o . Since inserted statements can only kill aliases, $AS^m \subseteq AS^o$. Thus, $\text{LnA}(\rho', AS^m)$, the paths resulting out of insertion, are also in the liveness graph at p_a^o . Therefore every access path which is in some liveness graph at p_a^m is also in some liveness graph at p_a^o . The same relation would hold at p_b^m and p_b^o . \square

THEOREM 6.1. (Safety of *null* insertion). *Let the assignment $\alpha^b = \text{null}$ be inserted by the algorithm immediately before p_a^m . Then:*

- (1) *Execution of $\alpha^b = \text{null}$ does not raise any exception due to dereferencing.*
- (2) *Let α^a be used immediately after p_a^m (in an original statement or an inserted null assignment). Then, execution of $\alpha^b = \text{null}$ cannot nullify any link used in α^a .*

PROOF. We prove the two parts separately.

- (1) If α^b is a root variable, then the execution of $\alpha^b = \text{null}$ cannot raise an exception. When α^b is not a root variable, from the null assignment algorithm, every proper



X axis indicates measurement instants in milliseconds. Y axis indicates heap usage in KB. Solid line represents memory required for original program while dashed line represents memory for the modified program. Observe that the modified program executed faster than the original program in each case.

Fig. 15. Temporal plots of memory usages.

prefix p' of p^b is either anticipable or available. From the soundness of both these analyses, $Target(p')$ exists and the execution of $\alpha^b = null$ cannot raise an exception.

(2) We prove this by contradiction. Let s denote the sequence of statements between p_b^m and p_a^m . Assume that $\alpha^b = null$ nullifies a link used in α^a . This is possible only if there exists a prefix p' of p^a such that $T(s, p')$ shares its frontier with p^b at p_b^m . By Lemma 6.4, $T(s, p')$ must be in some explicit liveness graph at p_b^m . From Lemma 6.3 and the definition of liveness, p^b is in some liveness graph at p_b^m . By Lemma 6.5, p^b is also in some liveness graph at p_b^o . Thus a decision to insert $\alpha^b = null$ cannot be taken at p_b^o .

□

7. EMPIRICAL MEASUREMENTS

In order to show the effectiveness of heap reference analysis, we have developed proof-of-concept implementations of heap reference analysis at two levels: One at the interprocedural level and the other at the intraprocedural level.

7.1 Experimentation Methodology

Our intraprocedural analyzer, which predates the interprocedural version is an evidence of the effectiveness of intraprocedural analysis. It was implemented using XSB-Prolog⁷. The measurements were made on a 800 MHz Pentium III machine with 128 MB memory running Fedora Core release 2. The benchmarks used were Loop, DLoop, CReverse, BiSort, TreeAdd and GCBench. Three of these (Loop, DLoop and CReverse) are similar to those in [Shaham et al. 2003]. Loop creates a singly linked list and traverses it, DLoop is doubly linked list variation of the same program, CReverse reverses a singly linked list. BiSort and TreeAdd are taken from Java version of Olden benchmark suite [Carlisle 1996]. GCBench is taken from [Boehm].

For measurements on this implementation, the function of interest in a given Java program was manually translated to Prolog representation. This allowed us to avoid redundant information like temporaries, empty statements etc. resulting in a compact representations of programs. The interprocedural information for this function was approximated in the Prolog representations in the following manner: Calls to non-recursive functions were inlined and calls to recursive functions were replaced by iterative constructs which approximated the liveness property of heap manipulations in the function bodies. The result of the analysis was used to manually insert *null* assignments in the original Java programs to create modified Java programs.

Manual interventions allowed us to handle procedure calls without performing interprocedural analysis. In order to automate the analysis and extend it to interprocedural level, we used SOOT [Vallée-Rai et al. 1999] which has built in support for many of our requirements. However, compared to the Prolog representation of programs, the default Jimple representation used by SOOT is not efficient for our purposes because it introduces a large number of temporaries and contains all statements even if they do not affect heap reference analysis.

As was described earlier, our interprocedural analysis is very simplistic. Our experience shows that imprecision of interprocedural alias analysis increases the size of alias information thereby making the analysis inefficient apart from reducing the precision of the resulting information. This effect has been worsened by the fact that SOOT introduces a large number of temporary variables. Besides, the complete alias information is not required for our purposes.

We believe that our approach can be made much more scalable by

- Devising a method of avoiding full alias analysis and computing only the required alias information, and
- Improving the Jimple representation by eliminating redundant information, combining multiple successive uses into a single statement etc.

The implementations, along with the test programs (with their original, modified, and Prolog versions) are available at [Karkare 2005].

7.2 Measurements and Observations

Our experiments were directed at measuring:

⁷Available from <http://xsb.sourceforge.net>.

Intraprocedural analysis of selected method (Prolog Implementation)													
Program Name.Function	Analysis		Access Graphs				#null	Execution Time (sec)					
	#Iter	Time (sec)	#G	Nodes		Edges							
				Avg	Max	Avg	Max						
Loop.main	5	0.082	172	1.13	2	0.78	2	9	1.503	1.388			
DLoop.main	5	1.290	332	2.74	4	5.80	10	11	1.594	1.470			
CReverse.main	5	0.199	242	1.41	4	1.10	6	8	1.512	1.414			
BiSort.main	6	0.083	63	2.16	3	3.81	6	5	3.664	3.646			
TreeAdd.addtree	6	0.255	132	2.84	7	4.87	14	7	1.976	1.772			
GCBench.Populate	6	0.247	136	2.73	7	4.63	14	7	132.99	88.86			

Interprocedural analysis of all methods (SOOT Implementation)											
Program Name	LOC in Jimple	# methods	Analysis Time (sec.)	Access Graph Stats				#null	Execution Time (sec)		
				Nodes		Edges					
				Max	Avg	Max	Avg		Orig.	Mod.	
Loop	83	2	0.558	2	1.24	2	0.39	12	1.868	1.711	
DLoop	78	2	20.660	5	1.45	12	0.76	12	1.898	1.772	
CReverse	85	2	1.833	3	1.39	4	0.51	12	1.930	1.929	
BiSort	466	12	1.498	7	1.29	10	0.40	77	1.519	1.524	
TreeAdd	228	4	0.797	6	1.29	7	0.46	34	2.704	2.716	
GCBench	226	9	1.447	4	1.13	5	0.16	56	122.731	60.372	

- #Iter is the maximum number of iterations taken by any analysis.
- Analysis Time is the total time taken by all analyses.
- #G is total number of access graphs created by alias analysis and liveness analysis. Prolog implementation performs alias analysis also using access graphs.
- Max nodes (edges) is the maximum over number of nodes (edges) in all access graphs. In some cases, maximum number nodes/edges is more in case of intraprocedural analysis due to presence of longer paths in explicitly supplied boundary information, which gets replaced by a single * node in interprocedural analysis.
- Avg nodes (edges) is the average number of nodes (edges) over all access graphs.
- #null is the number of inserted *null* assignments.

Fig. 16. Empirical measurements of proof-of-concept implementations of heap reference analyzer.

- (1) *The efficiency of analysis.* We measured the total time required, number of iterations of round robin analyses, and the number and sizes of access graphs.
- (2) *The effectiveness of null assignment insertions.* The programs were made to create huge data structures. Memory usage was measured by explicit calls to garbage collector in both modified and original Java programs at specific probing points such as call sites, call returns, loop begins and loop ends. The overall execution time for the original and the modified programs was also measured.

The results of our experiments are shown in Figure 15 and Figure 16. As can be seen from Figure 15, nullification of links helped the garbage collector to collect a lot more garbage, thereby reducing the allocated heap memory. In case of BiSort, however, the links were last used within a recursive procedure which was called multiple times. Hence, safety criteria prevented *null* assignment insertion within the called procedure. Our analysis could only nullify the root of the data structure at the end of the program. Thus the memory was released only at the end of the program.

For interprocedural analysis, class files for both original as well as modified programs were generated using SOOT. As can be seen from Figure 16, modified programs executed

faster. In general, a reduction in execution time can be attributed to the following two factors: (a) a decrease in the number of calls to garbage collector and (b) reduction in the time taken for garbage collection in each call. The former is possible because of availability of a larger amount of free memory, the latter is possible because lesser reachable memory needs to be copied.⁸ In our experiments, factor (a) above was absent because the number of (explicit) calls to garbage collector were kept same. GCBench showed a large improvement in execution time after *null* assignment insertion. This is because GCBench creates large trees in heap, which are not used in the program after creation and our implementation was able to nullify left and right subtrees of these trees immediately after their creation. This also reduced the high water mark of the heap memory requirement.

As explained in Section 5.2, sizes of the access graphs (average number of nodes and edges) is small. This can be verified from Figure 16. The analysis of DLoop creates a large number of access graphs because of the presence of cycles in heap. In such a case, a large number of alias pairs are generated, many of which are redundant. Though it is possible to reduce analysis time by eliminating redundant alias pairs, our implementation, being a proof-of-concept implementation, does not do so for sake of simplicity.

Our technique and implementation compares well with the technique and results described in [Shaham et al. 2003]. A conceptual comparison with this method is included in Section 9.2. The implementation described in [Shaham et al. 2003] runs on a 900 MHz P-III with 512 MB RAM running Windows 2000. It takes 1.76 seconds, 2.68 seconds and 4.79 seconds respectively for Loop, DLoop and CReverse for *null* assignment insertion. Time required by our implementation for the above mentioned programs is given in Figure 16. Our implementation automatically computes the program points for *null* insertion whereas their method cannot do so. Our implementation performs much better in all cases.

8. EXTENSIONS FOR C++

This approach becomes applicable to C++ by extending the concept of access graphs to faithfully represent the C++ memory model. It is assumed that the memory which becomes unreachable due to nullification of pointers is reclaimed by an independent garbage collector. Otherwise, explicit reclamation of memory can be performed by checking that no node-alias of a nullified pointer is live.

In order to extend the concept of access graphs to C++, we need to account for two major differences between the C++ and the Java memory model:

- (1) Unlike Java, C++ has explicit pointers. Field of a structure (`struct` or `class`) can be accessed in two different ways in C++:
 - using pointer dereferencing `(*)`, e.g. `(*x).lptr`⁹ or
 - using simple dereferencing `(.)`, e.g. `y.rptr`.
 We need to distinguish between the two.
- (2) Although root variables are allocated on stack in both C++ and Java, C++ allows a pointer/reference to point to root variables on stack through the use of `addressof (&)` operator, whereas Java does not allow a reference to point to stack. Since the root nodes in access graphs do not have an incoming edge by definition, it is not possible to use access graphs directly to represent memory links in C++.

⁸This happens because Java Virtual Machine uses a copying garbage collector.

⁹This is equivalently written as `x->lptr`.

We create access graphs for C++ memory model as follows:

- (1) We treat dereference of a pointer as a field reference, i.e., $*$ is considered as a field named *deref*. For example, an access expression $(*x).lptr$ is viewed as $x.deref.lptr$, and corresponding access path is $x \rightarrow deref \rightarrow lptr$. The access path for $x.lptr$ is $x \rightarrow lptr$.
- (2) Though a pointer can point to a variable x , it is not possible extract the address of $\&x$, i.e. no pointer can point to $\&x$. For Java, we partition memory as stack and heap, and had root variables of access graphs correspond to stack variables. In C++, we partition the memory as *address of variables* and rest of the memory (stack and heap together). We make the roots of access graphs correspond to addresses of variables. A root variable y is represented as $deref(\&y)$. Thus, $\Rightarrow \circlearrowleft \&y \rightarrow \circlearrowleft d_1 \rightarrow \circlearrowleft l_2$ represents access paths $\&y$ and $\&y \rightarrow deref$ and $\&y \rightarrow deref \rightarrow l$, which correspond to access expressions $\&y$, y and $y.l$ respectively.

Handling pointer arithmetic and type casting in C++ is orthogonal to above discussion, and requires techniques similar to [Yong et al. 1999; Cheng and Hwu 2000] to be used.

9. RELATED WORK

Several properties of heap (viz. reachability, sharing, liveness etc.) have been explored in past; a good review has been provided by Sagiv et al. [2002]. In this section, we review the related work in the main property of interest: liveness. We are not aware of past work in availability and anticipability analysis of heap references.

9.1 Liveness Analysis of Heap Data

Most of the reported literature in liveness analysis of heap data either does not address liveness of individual objects or addresses liveness of objects identified by their allocation sites. Our method, by contrast, does not need the knowledge of allocation site. Since the precision of a garbage collector depends on its ability to distinguish between reachable heap objects and live heap objects, even state of art garbage collectors leave a significant amount of garbage uncollected [Agesen et al. 1998; Shaham et al. 2000; 2001; 2002]. All reported attempts to incorporate liveness in garbage collection have been quite approximate. The known approaches have been:

- (1) *Liveness of root variables.* A popular approach (which has also been used in some state of art garbage collectors) involves identifying liveness of root variable on the stack. All heap objects reachable from the live root variables are considered live [Agesen et al. 1998].
- (2) *Imposing stack discipline on heap objects.* These approaches try to change the statistically unpredictable lifetimes of heap objects into predictable lifetimes similar to stack data. They can be further classified as
 - Allocating objects on call stack.* These approach try to detect which objects can be allocated on stack frame so that they are automatically deallocated without the need of traditional garbage collection. A profile based approach which tracks the last use of an object is reported in [McDowell 1998], while a static analysis based approach is reported in [Reid et al. 1999].
 - Some approaches ask a converse question: which objects are unstackable (i.e. their lifetimes outlive the procedure which created it)? They use abstract interpretation

and perform *escape analysis* to discover objects which *escape* a procedure [Blanchet 1999; 2003; Choi et al. 1999]. All other objects are allocated on stack.

- Associating objects with call stack* [Cannarozzi et al. 2000]. This approach identifies the stackability. The objects are allocated in the heap but are associated with a stack frame and the runtime support is modified to deallocate these (heap) objects when the associated stack frame is popped.
- Allocating objects on separate stack*. This approach uses a static analysis called *region inference* [Tofte and Birkedal 1998; Hallenberg et al. 2002] to identify *regions* which are storages for objects. These regions are allocated on a separate region stack.

All these approaches require modifying the runtime support for the programs.

- (3) *Liveness analysis of locally allocated objects*. The Free-Me approach [Guyer et al. 2006] combines a lightweight pointer analysis with liveness information that detects when allocated objects die and insert statements to free such objects. The analysis is simpler and cheaper as the scope is limited, but it frees locally allocated objects only by separating objects which escape the procedure call from those which do not. The objects which do not escape the procedure which creates them become unreachable at the end of the procedure anyway and would be garbage collected. Thus their method merely advances the work of garbage collection instead of creating new garbage. Further, this does not happen in the called method. Further, their method uses traditional liveness analysis for root variables only and hence can not free objects that are stored in field references.
- (4) The *Shape Analysis Based* based approaches. The two approaches in this category are
 - Heap Safety Automaton* approach [Shaham et al. 2003] is a recently reported work which comes closest to our approach since it tries to determine if a reference can be made *null*. We discuss this approach in the next section.
 - Cherem and Rugina [2006] use a shape analysis framework [Hackett and Rugina 2005] to analyze a single heap cell to discover the point in the program where it object becomes unreachable. Their method claims the objects at such points thereby reducing the work of the garbage collector. They use equivalence classes of expressions to store definite points-to and definitely-not points-to information in order to increase the precision of abstract reference counts. However, multiple iterations of the analysis and the optimization steps are required, since freeing a cell might result in opportunities for more deallocations. Their method does not take into account the last use of an object, and therefore does not make additional objects unreachable.

9.2 Heap Safety Automaton Based Approach

This approach models safety of inserting a null statement at a given point by an automaton. A shape graph based abstraction of the program is then model-checked against the heap safety automaton. Additionally, they also consider freeing the object; our approach can be easily extended to include freeing.

The fundamental differences between the two approaches are

- Their method answers the following question: Given an access expression and a program point, can the access expression be set to *null* immediately after that program point? However, they leave a very important question unanswered: Which access expressions should we consider and at which point in the program? It is impractical to use their

method to ask this question for every pair of access expression and program point. Our method answers both the questions by finding out appropriate access expressions and program points.

- We insert *null* assignments at the earliest possible point. The effectiveness of any method to improve garbage collection depends crucially on this aspect. Their method does not address this issue directly.
- As noted in Section 7.2, their method is inefficient in practice. For a simple Java program containing 11 lines of executable statements, it takes over 1.37 MB of storage and takes 1.76 seconds for answering the question: Can the variable *y* be set to *null* after line 10?

Hence our approach is superior to their approach in terms of completeness, effectiveness, and efficiency.

10. CONCLUSIONS AND FURTHER WORK

Two fundamental challenges in analyzing heap data are that the temporal and spatial structures of heap data seem arbitrary and are unbounded. The apparent arbitrariness arises due to the fact that the mapping between access expressions and l-values varies dynamically.

The two key insights which allow us to overcome the above problems in the context of liveness analysis of heap data are:

—*Creating finite representations for properties of heap data using program structure.* We create an abstract representation of heap in terms of sets of access paths. Further, a bounded representation, called access graphs, is used for summarizing sets of access paths. Summarization is based on the fact that the heap can be viewed as consisting of repeating patterns which bear a close resemblance to the program structure. Access graphs capture this fact directly by tagging program points to access graph nodes. Unlike [Horwitz et al. 1989; Chase et al. 1990; Choi et al. 1993; Wilson and Lam 1995; Hind et al. 1999] where only memory allocation points are remembered, we remember all program points where references are used. This allows us to combine data flow information arising out of the same program point, resulting in bounded representations of heap data. These representations are simple, precise, and natural.

The dynamically varying mapping between access expressions and l-values is handled by abstracting out regions in the heap which can possibly be accessed by a program. These regions are represented by sets of access paths and access graphs which are manipulated using a carefully chosen set of operations. The computation of access graphs and access paths using data flow analysis is possible because of their finiteness and the monotonicity of the chosen operations. We define data flow analyses for liveness, availability and anticipability of heap references. Liveness analysis is an any path problem, hence it involves unbounded information requiring access graphs as data flow values. Availability and anticipability analyses are all paths problems, hence they involve bounded information which is represented by finite sets of access paths.

—*Identifying the minimal information which covers every live link in the heap.* An interesting aspect of our liveness analysis is that the property of explicit liveness captures the minimal information which covers every link which can possibly be live. Complete liveness is computed by incorporating alias information in explicit liveness.

An immediate application of these analyses is a technique to improve garbage collection. This technique works by identifying objects which are dead and rendering them unreachable.

able by setting them to null as early as possible. Though this idea was previously known to yield benefits [Gadbois et al.], nullification of dead objects was based on profiling [Shaham et al. 2001; 2002]. Our method, instead, is based on static analysis.

For the future work, we find some scope of improvements on both conceptual level and at the level of implementation.

(1) *Conceptual Aspects.*

- (a) Since the scalability of our method critically depends on the scalability of alias analysis, we would like to explore the possibility of avoiding computation of complete alias information at each program point. Since explicit liveness does not require alias information, an interesting question for further investigation is: Just how much alias information is enough to compute complete liveness from explicit liveness? This question is important because:
 - Not all aliases contribute to complete liveness.
 - Even when an alias contributes to liveness, it needs to be propagated over a limited region of the program.
- (b) We have proposed an efficient version of call strings based interprocedural data flow analysis in an independent work [Karkare 2007]. It is a generic approach which retains full context sensitivity. We would like to use it for heap reference analysis.
- (c) We would like to improve the *null* insertion algorithm so that the same link is not nullified more than once.
- (d) We would like to analyze array fragments instead of treating an entire array as a scalar (and hence, all elements as equivalent).
- (e) We would also like to extend the scope of heap reference analysis for functional languages. The basic method and the details of the liveness analysis are already finalized [Karkare et al. 2007]. The details of other analyses are being finalized [Karkare et al. 2007].

(2) *Implementation Related Aspects.*

- (a) We would also like to implement this approach for C/C++ and use it for plugging memory leaks statically.
- (b) Our experience with our proof-of-concept implementations indicates that the engineering choices made in the implementation have a significant bearing on the performance of our method. For example, we would like to use a better representation than the one provided by SOOT.

We would also like to apply the summarization heuristic to other analyses. Our initial explorations indicate that a similar approach would be useful for extending static inferencing of flow-sensitive monomorphic types [Khedker et al. 2003] to include polymorphic types. This is possible because polymorphic types represent an infinite set of types and hence discovering them requires summarizing unbounded information.

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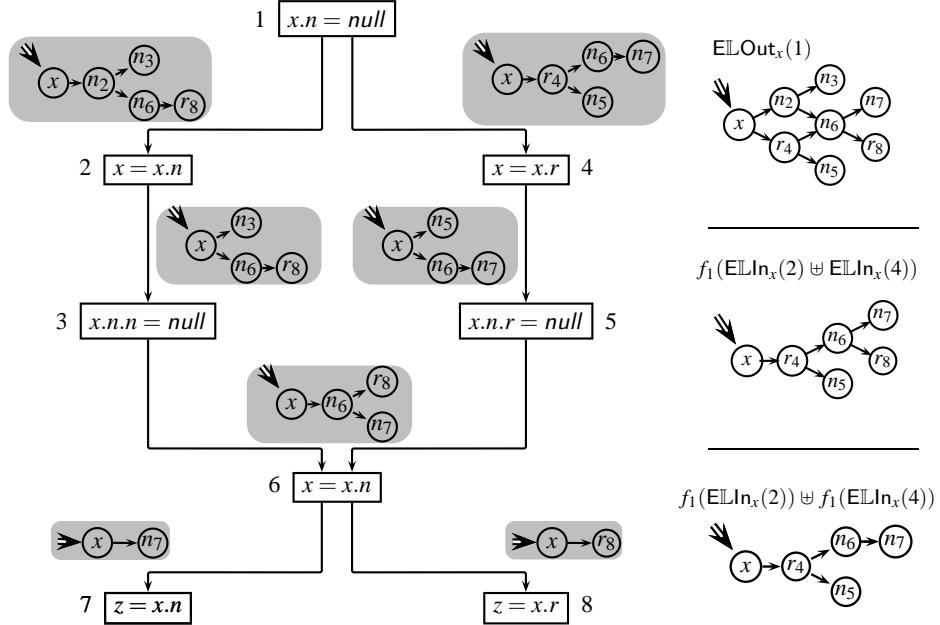


Fig. 17. Non-distributivity of liveness analysis. Access path $x \rightarrow r \rightarrow n \rightarrow r$ is a spurious access path which does not get killed by the assignment in block 1.

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A. NON-DISTRIBUTIVITY IN HEAP REFERENCE ANALYSIS

Explicit liveness analysis defined in this paper is not distributive whereas availability and anticipability analyses are distributive. Explicit liveness analysis is non-distributive because of the approximation introduced by the \uplus operation. $G_1 \uplus G_2$ may contain access paths which are neither in G_1 nor in G_2 .

EXAMPLE A.1. Figure 17 illustrates the non-distributivity of explicit liveness analysis. Liveness graphs associated with the entry each block is shown in shaded boxes. Let f_1 denote the flow function which computes x -rooted liveness graphs at the entry of block 1. Neither $ELn_x(2)$ nor $ELn_x(4)$ contains the access path $x \rightarrow r \rightarrow n \rightarrow r$ but their union contains it. It is easy to see that

$$f_1(ELn_x(2) \uplus ELn_x(4)) \sqsubseteq_G f_1(ELn_x(2)) \uplus f_1(ELn_x(4))$$

□

Availability and anticipability analyses are non-distributive because they depend on may-alias analysis which is non-distributive.